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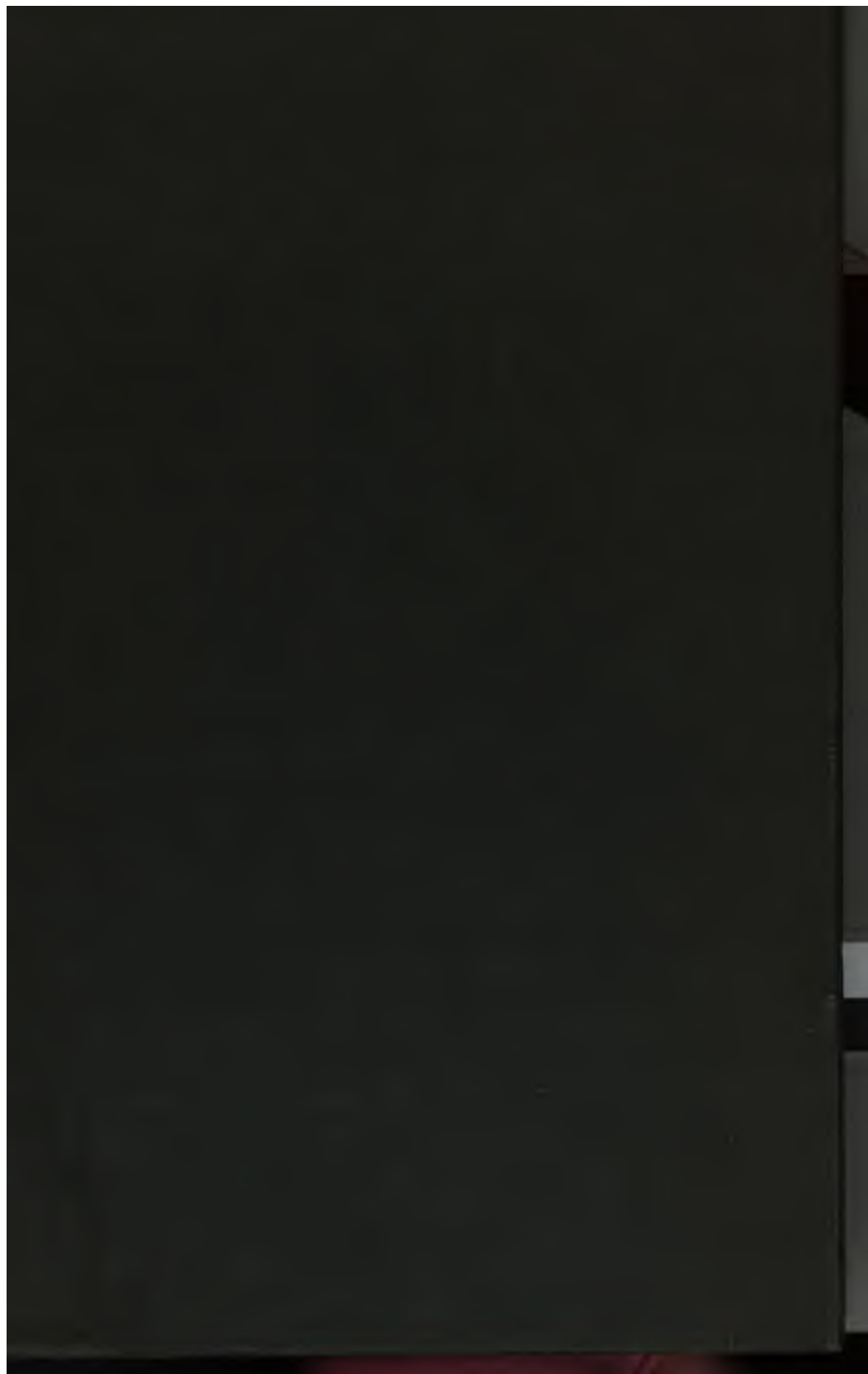
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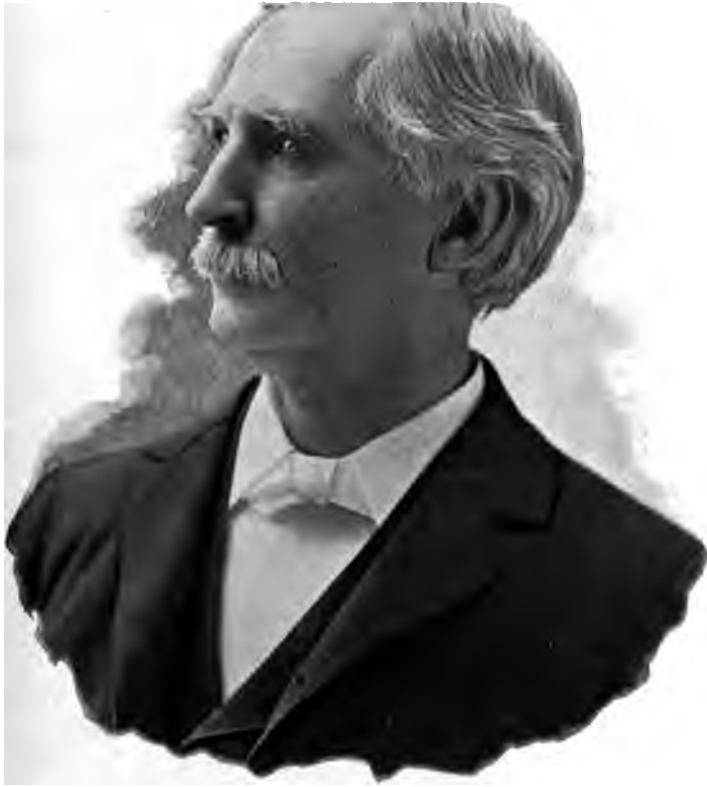


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THE HISTORY

OF THE

STATE OF INDIANA

FROM THE

Earliest Explorations by the French to
the Present Time.

CONTAINING AN ACCOUNT OF THE PRINCIPAL
CIVIL, POLITICAL, AND MILITARY
EVENTS, FROM 1763
TO 1897.

BY

WILLIAM HENRY SMITH.

VOLUME II.

1897.
THE B. L. BLAIR COMPANY
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CHAPTER XVIII.

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Notwithstanding that when the General Government accepted the Northwest Territory from Virginia, and the other States which laid claim to its jurisdiction, provision was made for the education of the people, it was not until Indiana became a State of the Union that any definite steps were taken to establish any uniform system of education. At the close of the Revolutionary War there was not a school within the boundaries of what is now the State of Indiana. In fact, there were only two settlements at that time within those boundaries, one at Vincennes, and one at Ouiatenon, both on the Wabash. During the occupancy of this territory by the French no schools had been established, and while it was under British control no effort had been made to extend the settlements, nor to establish schools at the two existing Posts. Following the occupation of the Territory by General George Rogers Clark the times were too exciting, and the dangers from hostile Indians were so great that but little attention could be paid to the establishment of schools.

The introduction of schools, however, do not lag very far behind the settlement of any part of a country by Americans, and it was not long after the pioneers began to settle on the Ohio and the Whitewater, until the peda-

gogue appeared. The first teachers in Indiana were mainly from Ireland or Scotland, with a few from New England, and occasionally one from Virginia or Tennessee. The first schoolhouses were log cabins with puncheon floors and seats. Generally one end of the house was taken up by a fireplace, where huge logs furnished warmth and smoke. The windows were small, consisting generally of four or six panes of glass about eight by ten inches in size. In these uncomfortable houses school was taught usually three or four months in the year. Text books were not to be had and the scholars took to school such books as the family might have brought with them from the older States. The New Testament was the approved book used for teaching reading. The course consisted of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with now and then a class in geography and one in grammar. The teacher was always provided with a good supply of switches, and a heavy ferrule or two, with which he pounded learning into the scholars. The teacher was an autocrat, and his word was absolute law, both to parents and scholars.

All the studying in the schools was accompanied by loud vocal noises from the scholars, until a school with twenty-five scholars resembled a modern political meeting, more than anything else. This method was deemed the only one by which students could be made to think for themselves. The idea was, that studying and thinking amid such confusion and noise best fitted the student for business in after life. This custom prevailed in most of the schools until long after Indiana had become a State in the Union. The method of recitations followed very closely that of the studying, and most of the lessons were recited in a monotonous, sing-song tone. One of the main requirements of a teacher was the

ability to teach penmanship. In those days penmanship was a very laborious, tedious, and painful exercise. It was really pen-printing. The scholar was compelled to write very slowly and with the greatest precision. Spelling was another of the specialties in those days. Generally the classes stood around the room and "spelled for head." The last afternoon of each week was usually devoted to a spelling-bee. The school would divide and each side try to spell the other down. When schools became more numerous, and within reach of each other, it was a common thing for one school to challenge another for a spelling-match, which would be attended by as many of the parents as possibly could find the leisure time. These were great occasions and were generally followed by an old-fashioned country dance, or some other amusement common in those days.

In the early days no child was expected to read until he could spell well. He was generally required to go through the spelling book two or three times before attempting to read. It is not certain, but if that system was still pursued we would have better readers in our schools than we now have. In those early schools rapidity in reading was a great thing, and he who could race through a reading lesson, like one of our modern locomotives races over the iron track, was considered the best reader. Reading of poetry was generally done in a sing-song tone with a rising inflection on the last word or syllable of each line. Arithmetic was regarded as the most important, because it was the most practical. Commercial schools did not exist in those days. Fractions were seldom taught, the teachers taking their classes only to the "Rule of Three." Every scholar was ambitious to be a good speller and good in figures, but the girls were hardly ever taught arithmetic beyond "Reduction."

Murray's Grammar was the standard work for this science. No other grammar was known in all this country at that time. Not many of the scholars ever took a course in grammar, but now and then, one more ambitious than the others, would take a course, and also make a dive into Latin. Most of the teachers, especially those who came from Ireland and Scotland, were good Latin scholars, and it delighted their hearts to find a studious youth who wanted to dip into the dead languages, and to such an one they would devote many extra hours, without thinking of compensation. Of geography but little was taught and that in a general way. It was not until 1825 that geography was generally taught in the schools. Barnabas C. Hobbs, who for many years was one of Indiana's most distinguished educators, in speaking of the early teaching of geography, said:

"I can well remember when Morse's Geography came into the State. It was about the year 1825. It created a great sensation. It was a period in school history. Before this, but few had a clear idea of the earth's rotundity. Many could not understand the subject well enough to reason upon it. Many were emphatic and persistent in repudiating the absurd idea that the world is round, and turns over. Debating clubs discussed the subject, and to the opposition it was perfectly clear that if the world turned over we would all fall off, and the water in the ocean would be spilled out. Morse's Geography cleared away the fog, and when Comstock's Philosophy, with its brief outlining of Astronomy, was introduced, the school boy could understand the subject well."

The amusements in those days were all of the out door character. "Bull pen" was a favorite game. Good dodging required the play of every muscle. Town ball, base, and

cat were also great favorites. Wrestling and jumping were indulged in to test the activity, muscle and endurance.

It was not until after the State had been organized for some time that any effort was made to test, in any way, the qualifications of those who sought to teach. The first examinations for teachers were placed in the hands of the Township Trustees, who were often very illiterate, and their examinations were more often of a farcical character than otherwise. Mr. Hobbs, before referred to, tells this amusing experience of his first examination to be a teacher:

"The only question asked me at my first examination was, 'What is the product of 25 cents by 25 cents?' We had then no Teachers' Institutes, Normal Schools, nor 'best methods' by which nice matters were determined and precise definitions given. We were not as exact then as people are now. We had only Pike's Arithmetic which gave the sums and the rules. These were considered enough at that day. How could I tell the product of 25 cents by 25 cents, when such a problem could not be found in the book? The examiner thought it was 6 1-4 cents, but was not sure. I thought just as he did, but this looked too small to both of us. We discussed its merits for an hour or more, when he decided that he was sure I was qualified to teach school, and a first-class certificate was given to me. How others fared, I cannot tell. I only know that teachers rarely taught twice in the same place." The first school teacher in Indiana was M. Rivet, a missionary who had been driven from France by the revolution. He opened a school at Vincennes in 1793.

The pioneer legislators of Indiana conceived an educational system to meet all the wants of the people. The common school was to be its base, and a State University its apex, with County Seminaries to fill the space between, and

furnish a preparatory course for the University, but the scheme failed from two causes, one was the lack of funds and the other a lack of competent teachers. On the 20th of May, 1785, Congress passed an ordinance in relation to the mode of disposing of the public lands in the territory northwest of the Ohio River. This ordinance provided that one square mile of land, or section No. 16, in every township, should be reserved for the maintenance of public schools. The third article of compact in the Ordinance of 1787, declares that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to the government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." It will be seen that the general government not only declared in favor of this great theory of educating the masses, but had provided the States, to be carved out of this vast territory, with a foundation for a permanent school fund. During the Territorial existence of Indiana the Legislature several times discussed this question of public education, but little was done towards perfecting a system. Governor Harrison, in one of his messages not only urged this upon the Legislature, but also urged the necessity of adopting as a part of the curriculum, a military education.

In 1807 the Legislature passed an act to incorporate "the Vincennes University, for the instruction of youth in the Latin, Greek, French and English languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, ancient and modern history, moral philosophy, logic, rhetoric, and the laws of nature and nations." In the preamble to this act, the Legislature declared that the "Independence, happiness, and energy of every republic depended (under the influence of the destinies of heaven) upon the wisdom, virtue, talents, and energy of its citizens and rulers; and that science, literature, and the



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liberal arts contributed in an eminent degree to improve those qualities and requirements; and that learning had ever been found the ablest advocate of genuine liberty, the best supporter of rational religion, and the source of the only solid and imperishable glory which nations can acquire." In 1808 the Legislature authorized the Judges of the Common Pleas Courts of the Territory to lease the school lands, and two years later the same Judges were authorized to appoint "Trustees" of the school lands, with power to lease, but they were forbidden to lease more than one hundred and sixty acres to any one person, and the destruction of timber trees on the leased lands was forbidden. This was about all that was done under the Territorial Government to advance the cause of education, but it must be remembered that the Territory was only just emerging from the terrors of the Indian wars which accompanied the last contest with Great Britain, and that settlers were but beginning to come into the Territory in any numbers.

The first constitution, adopted in 1816, had a very strong provision in favor of education. That instrument, in the ninth article said:

"Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide by law, for the improvement of such lands as are, or hereafter may be granted by the United States, to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other quarter, to the accomplishment of the grand object for which they are or may be intended; but no lands granted

for the use of schools or seminaries of learning shall be sold by the authority of the State prior to the year eighteen hundred and twenty; and the moneys which may be raised out of the sale of any such lands, or otherwise obtained for the purposes aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive purposes of promoting the interest of literature and the sciences, and for the support of seminaries and public schools. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State University, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all. And for the promotion of such salutary end, the money which shall be paid as an equivalent by persons exempt from military duty, except in times of war, shall be exclusively, and in equal proportion, applied to the support of county seminaries; and all fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws shall be applied to said seminaries in the Counties wherein they shall be assessed."

Notwithstanding this ample provision in the constitution the cause of education advanced very slowly. There were many obstacles in the way. The settlements were small and scattered far apart; there were no funds with which to erect school houses, and there was apathy on the part of some, and very decided hostility on the part of others. The cause of education, however, had many staunch friends, and they did not let the matter rest, but kept up the agitation from year to year. The General Assembly of 1816 made provision for the appointment of superintendents of school sections, with power to lease the school lands, for any term not to exceed seven years. Each lessee of such lands was required to set out annually on such lands, twenty-five apple and twenty-

five peach trees until one hundred of each had been planted. Between the years 1816 and 1820 several academies, seminaries and literary societies were incorporated. In 1821, John Badollet, David Hart, William W. Martin, James Welsch, Daniel S. Caswell, Thomas C. Searle, and John Todd, were appointed by the General Assembly, a commission to draft and report to the next Legislature a bill providing for a general system of education; and they were instructed to guard particularly against "any distinction between the rich and poor." The commission set about their work conscientiously, and when it was completed submitted it to Benjamin Parke, who had been at one time a delegate to Congress, and was then the United States Judge for Indiana. The bill so reported was enacted into a law, and became the first general law on the subject of education passed by the Indiana General Assembly. It was passed in 1824, and bore the title: "An Act to incorporate congressional townships and providing for public schools therein."

After providing for the election by the people of each Congressional township, of three persons of the township to act as school trustees, to whom the control of the school lands and schools generally were to be given, the law made the following provision for building school houses: "Every able-bodied male person of the age of twenty-one years and upwards residing within the bounds of such school district, shall be liable to work one day in each week until such building may be completed, or pay the sum of thirty-seven and one-half cents for every day he may fail to work." The same act describes a school house as follows: "In all cases such school house shall be eight feet between the floors, and at least one foot from the surface of the ground to the first floor, and be furnished in a manner calculated to render com-

fortable the teacher and pupils." The trustees, in lieu of work, were required to receive lumber, nails, glass, or other necessary materials, at the current prices. No funds were provided for the pay of teachers, so the schools were not free, but they were made open to all, black as well as white, and it was not until about 1830 that colored children were excluded from the schools, and then the exclusion arose from a prejudice excited by the slavery agitation. Under the law of 1824 the schools were kept open just so long each year as the patrons could or would pay for their maintenance.

At nearly every succeeding session of the General Assembly some law was enacted on the subject of education, but still no general system was adopted. There was always an element of opposition that would find some way to get the laws before the courts, and thus to hamper the attempts to establish schools. Private citizens did much, and public meetings of citizens did more, but little could be accomplished in a public way. School officers had no funds with which to erect houses, or to pay teachers. They could not levy a tax, except by special permission of the district, and, even then the expenditure was limited to \$50 by the act of 1834. The friends of public schools worked on, and hoped on, striving to overcome every obstacle and put down all opposition. At last their day of triumph came, but even in their triumph they came near being defeated, and their noble efforts were for some years destroyed by the stupidity of a Supreme Court. The friends of education planned and worked until at last they found a way to provide for one of the most magnificent public school funds of any State in the Union. It has already been noted that the General Government gave to the State the 16th section in every town-

ship, for school purposes. This was made the beginning of the grand school fund to be built up by the State. The present school fund has accumulated from the following sources:

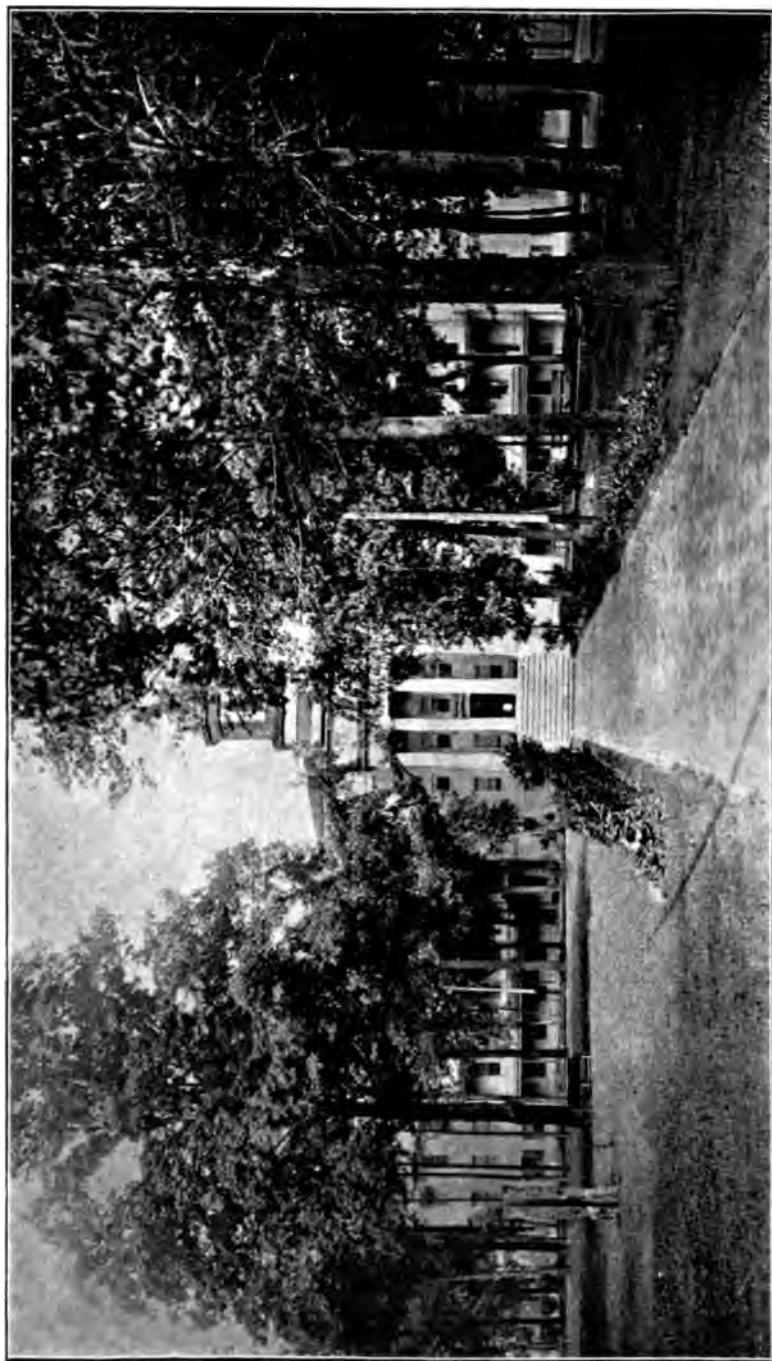
- 1.—The Congressional Township Fund.
- 2.—The Bank Tax Fund.
- 3.—The Sinking Fund.
- 4.—The Surplus Revenue Fund.
- 5.—The Saline Fund.
- 6.—The Swamp Land Fund.
- 7.—The Seminary Fund.
- 8.—The Contingent Fund.

The Congressional Township Fund was to be raised from the sale of the sections given by the General Government. The Bank Tax Fund came from a provision in the charter of the State Bank of Indiana. It provided that the bank should deduct from the annual dividends, the sum of twelve and a half cents for each share of the stock of the bank, except the shares owned by the State, to constitute a part of a permanent school fund. This fund was to be kept in the bank and allowed to accumulate until it was appropriated by the Legislature. During the life of the bank this tax produced \$80,000. By the charter of the bank, the State was to own one half the stock. To pay for this stock the State was permitted to borrow \$1,300,000, for a period of twenty years, at five per cent. interest. Of this sum \$800,000 were to be used to pay for the State's stock, and the remaining \$500,000 were to be loaned by the State to individuals, for long terms, at six per cent. interest. It was provided that the interest on these loans to individuals, together with the principal, when paid, with all dividends on the shares held by the State, should be left to accumu-

late and go, first to repay the loan of \$1,300,000. and the residue to form a permanent school fund. This proved to be a fortunate speculation on the part of the State, as its share, after all expenses were paid, amounted to about four and a half million dollars. It is to John Beard, member of the General Assembly in 1834, from Montgomery County, the children of the State owe gratitude for this fund.

In 1836 the National Treasury had a very large surplus, and as there was no National debt to which it could be applied, Congress concluded to divide a large part of the surplus among the various States of the Union, according to the population of each. The share of Indiana amounted to \$806,254. The Legislature of 1837 set apart \$573,502.96 of this sum for the use of the common schools, and made it a part of the permanent fund. This is known as the "Surplus Revenue Fund." By the second section of article eight of the constitution it is provided that all lands that have been, or may be granted to the State, when no special purpose is designated in the grant, and the proceeds of the sales thereof, including the swamp lands which had been granted, shall become a part of the permanent school fund. This is known as the "Swamp Land Fund." In 1816 Congress gave to the State all salt springs in the State, together with the lands reserved for the use of the same, not to exceed thirty-six entire sections in the State, and in 1832 authorized the State to sell such springs and lands and apply the proceeds to the common school fund. This was the origin of the Saline fund, and has yielded about \$85,000.

In 1832 the Legislature ordered the sale of all County Seminaries, with all their property, real and personal, and provided that the net proceeds should be added to the permanent school fund. The contingent fund arises from fines,



INSTITUTE FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB—INDIANAPOLIS.

forfeitures and escheats. It is proper to state, in this connection, that under the law authorizing County Seminaries, one or two such institutions grew up to be quite famous as institutions of learning, and in them were educated some of the men who afterward became leading figures in the history of the State. Perhaps the two which were the most prosperous were those in Marion and Washington Counties. That in Washington County was for twenty years or more under the direction of John I. Morrison, one of the most distinguished and successful educators the State has ever had. That in Marion County was not so long under the direction of any one person, but it became a noted seat of learning.

The dawn of our present common school system began in 1852. The people of the State had reached the conclusion that the constitution of 1816 was not broad enough in some respects for the needs of the growing State, and a convention had been called to remodel that instrument. The new constitution provided for the establishment of a general and uniform system of common schools wherein tuition should be without charge, and equally open to all. This provision was submitted to a popular vote and was accepted by the people by a majority of more than eighty thousand. To the Hon. Caleb Mills the credit is due for this provision. He had issued several addresses to the Legislature on this subject, and had awakened the attention of the public to it. Previous to that time the school officers were dependent upon the uncertain popular vote of a district, township or city for instructions concerning the sale or lease of school lands, the loaning of money, the building of school houses and the employment of teachers. This loose system had not worked well. In some places the people were liberal and

the schools were treated accordingly, while in others an illiberal spirit prevailed. The first Legislature under the new constitution sought to do away with all this, and perfect a system whereby all sections of the State should be treated in a more uniform manner.

The school law of 1852 was exceedingly liberal and embodied principles and practical excellencies that would have soon put our school system abreast, if not ahead, of that of any of the other States. The law embodied the principle that the property of the State should educate the children of the State, and that all the common schools should be open to pupils without charge. The first section of the act provided for levying and collecting a property tax of ten cents on each one hundred dollars' worth of property. The second section provided for the consolidation and general management by the State of all the permanent school funds. The law abolished the Congressional township system, and declared each civil township a township for school purposes, and gave the Township Trustees full charge of the educational affairs of the Township. They were empowered to build school houses, establish graded schools and employ teachers, as circumstances might seem to require. The law provided for the better investment of the school funds, and made the Counties responsible for the payment of the annual interest thereon. It provided for the election of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and provided for the establishment of a State Board of Education, and specified the duties and powers of the Superintendent and Board of Education.

The State Superintendent is a constitutional officer, and is elected by the people for a term of two years. His duties are varied and arduous, and his office one of the greatest im-

portance to the school system. He is charged with the administration of the system of instruction, with a general supervision of the schools, and of the funds for their use. It is his duty to render an opinion in writing to any school officer in regard to the administration or construction of the school laws, and he is required to visit every County in the State at least once in every two years. He examines into the management of the school funds of the Counties, and as to how they are collected and disbursed. He also hears and determines appeals in certain cases from the County Superintendents. In short, upon him hinges, in a great measure, the perfection of the whole system.

The law also provided for the purchase of township libraries and levied a small tax for that purpose. It declared incorporated cities and towns to be school corporations, independent of the Townships in which they were situated, and empowered them to appoint independent school trustees, with powers to establish graded schools, and to levy taxes for their support, after the school fund should be exhausted. They were also authorized to build school houses and furnish them. Another important section was one enabling the citizens of a Township to make extra provisions for the support of schools. It read as follows:

"The voters of any township shall have power at any general or special meeting to vote a tax for the purpose of building or repairing school houses, and purchasing sites therefor, providing fuel, furniture, maps, apparatus, libraries, or increase thereof, or to discharge debts incurred therefor, and for continuing their schools, after the public funds shall have been expended, to any amount not exceeding fifty cents on each one hundred dollars of property, and fifty cents on each poll."

The two sections referred to were broad and liberal, and were intended to permit the people to supplement the general fund, as they might feel disposed to. The general fund at that time was not as large as at present, and at the best would only furnish money enough to keep the schools open a short time each year. Having established the principle of free education, and declared their belief that education was to be the future safety of the State and Nation, it was highly proper and judicious to give the people the right to tax themselves, as they might deem proper, to carry on this great educational system. The cities especially felt the need of this system of graded schools. A collection of people in large bodies would prove dangerous unless the children could be educated, and as there were always numbers in the cities who could not afford to educate their children in private schools, this tax provision was especially wise as to them. Under it the school system at once felt a great impetus, and large and commodious schoolhouses were at once erected in many of the cities, and graded schools established. The State took one great leap forward in the race of progress. The enthusiasm spread to many of the country districts, and it was soon noticed that a marked improvement in the character of the schools, both in the qualifications of the teachers and in the length of the school terms, had taken place.

The State had entered upon a new era, and gave promise of soon having a public school system that would be the pride of all, and would reflect great credit upon the people. But every community must, of necessity, be inflicted with people who oppose all progress. Those who drafted the constitution of 1850 no doubt meant wisely, but they were not always happy in finding the right words to convey their meaning, and they let slip into the constitution a

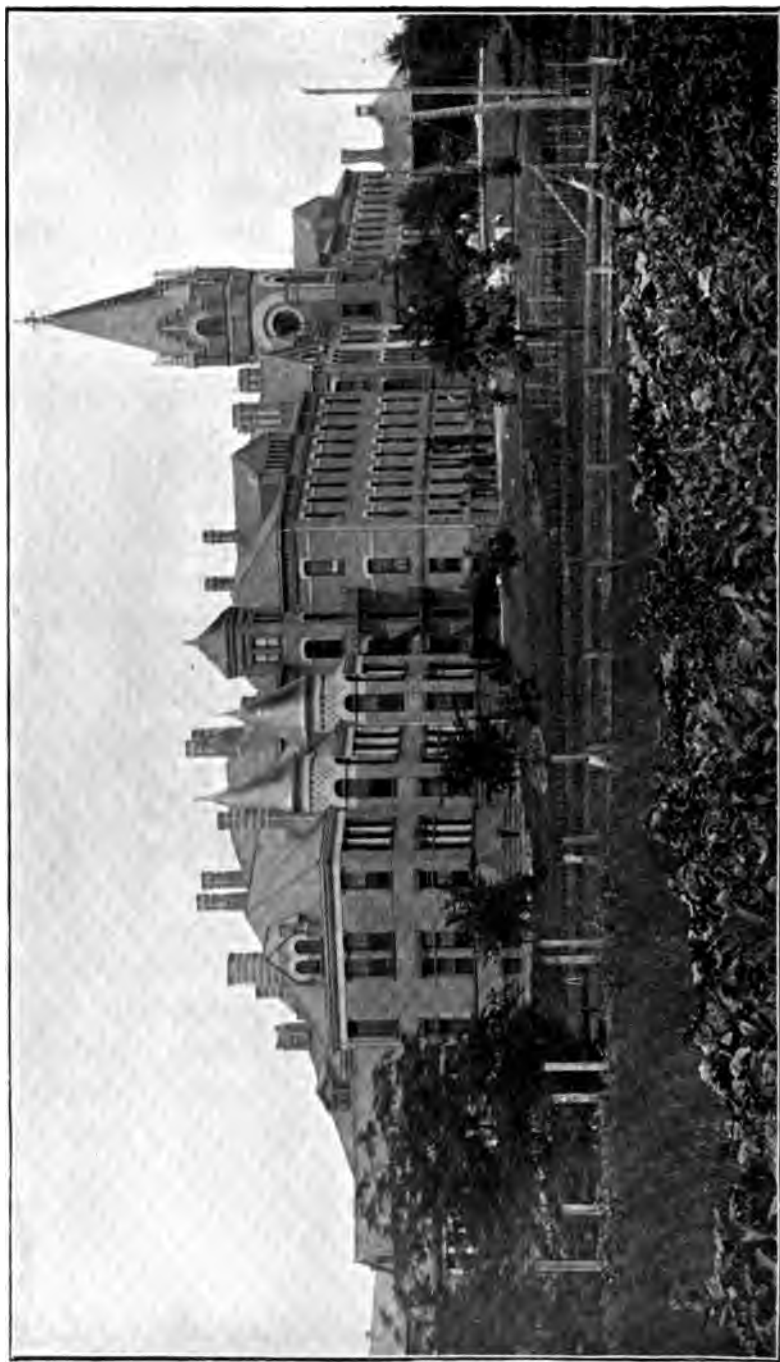
clause that has been productive of untold litigation, and vexation to all legislatures. In declaring the powers of the Legislature the constitution provides that all laws shall be general and of uniform operation throughout the State. That poor, unexplained word, "uniform" has been made to cover many an attack upon laws that were good, and wholesome. So it was in the case of the school law of 1852. Tax-payers were found who objected to being taxed to educate the children of the State, and a suit, or rather two suits were brought to overthrow the law on the plea that it was not of "uniform operation" throughout the State; that it gave to incorporated cities and towns rights and powers not given to the country districts, and that even in the country districts there was not uniformity, for one district might levy a tax and another not, or one might levy a tax of twenty-five cents and another one of fifty cents, or that through this tax one district might keep open its school for four months, while another that did not tax would only have two months.

Strange to say, a Court was found to uphold such objections. The Court could not distinguish between "uniform operation," and uniform execution. The operation of the law was uniform, for it gave to all the same rights, and it left all equally free to exercise the rights thus given, or to let them sleep, as they saw fit. Its application by the people was not uniform, and with that the constitution had nothing to do. The law gave all the children the opportunity to learn, and the Court might as well have declared that the law was unconstitutional, because all the children did not, or could not, learn in a uniform degree. The Court did overthrow the law, and by its action greatly retarded the growth and prosperity of the State, for more than a decade. It went through all the land that the people of Indiana were op-

posed to education, notwithstanding they had voted for free schools by a majority of more than eighty thousand. The decisions of the Courts were a death blow to the graded schools. They had been started in many of the cities, but for the want of funds had to be discontinued, and all the schools of the State were relegated to the general fund, and when that was exhausted they were compelled to close.

The friends of popular education were disheartened for awhile, but they soon rallied and began to devise means to overcome the objections to a common school system, and contemplated for sometime making an effort to change the constitutional provision which had been declared to stand in the way, but the war with all its excitement and horrors came, and the attention of the people was for the time called away from everything else to the duty of saving the Union. It was not until 1865 that a new law was enacted. When it went into operation no one was found with temerity enough to attack it before the Courts, and although the decision of 1858 has never formally been overruled, it has been so practically. Into the law of 1865 some new features were introduced, one of the most important being the establishment of Teachers' Institutes. These Institutes have been a great power for good, and have accomplished a great work in raising the character of the schools. They have not only improved the standard of the teachers, but have stimulated a thirst for knowledge among the children, and have made the schools more popular than ever before. In fact, they have been the nerve, the very marrow of our school system.

The law of 1865 has been supplemented by others, each one calculated to perfect the system and to widen its scope. The power of taxation has been increased, and trustees have been authorized to issue bonds to procure funds for the erec-



SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED YOUTH—FT. WAYNE.

tion of new and more commodious buildings. The education of the colored children was also provided for in 1869. As stated in a former part of this work, up to 1830 the colored children were entitled to admission to the public schools on an equality with the whites. In fact, the constitution of 1816 provided that the common schools should be open to all, but in 1830 a prejudice arose against the colored people and it found its way into the legislation of the State, and into the schools, and colored children were barred from the right to participate in what was the common property of all, until after slavery was destroyed, and the colored man became a citizen, then once more he could send his children to the public schools.

Space will not permit giving in anything like detail the various laws which have been enacted from time to time for the betterment of the school system, nor, in fact, to mention them, and we will have to confine our remarks to those points in the laws which have been the most potent for good. Going hand in hand with the Teachers' Institutes in the work of improving our school system, and in raising the standard of education in Indiana, has been the establishment of the office of County Superintendent, and the organization of the County Boards of Education. The legislators have always had one end in view, that of increasing the facilities of the public schools, and the school tax is the one tax that is always paid willingly. At first teachers were employed without any examination at all; then the Trustees were authorized to examine all applicants before employing them to teach. Then another advance was made, and a County Examiner was appointed for that purpose. It was generally some business man who had but little time to give to the work, and oftentimes cared but little about it, so

examinations were seldom thorough. Then, too, each Trustee was an autocrat in his own peculiar province, deciding upon what text books should be used, and governing the schools according to his own ideas, and hence there was no uniformity anywhere. Trustees themselves were often men of very limited education, and did not always have the good of the schools at heart.

The Legislature, in 1875, determined to take one step in advance, so it passed a law providing for the election of a County Superintendent, and all the schools in the County were placed directly under his supervision. About this time, also, a different and better system of examinations for teachers' license was adopted. The people began to realize that it was not the one who could always answer certain questions, taken from the text books, that made the best teachers. An acquaintance with the best methods of conveying instruction, of assisting the dull scholar while not unduly holding back the bright one; the power of governing children and drawing out of them all that was best, and restraining that which was not good, are now deemed essential qualifications for teachers. Many learned people absolutely lack all faculty of conveying to others, especially to children, any part of what they know. Such a person would be a failure as a teacher, while some one else who did not possess a tithe of his actual knowledge, but possessed the faculty of imparting what he did know to the child, would be successful. All these points began to be taken into consideration, in the selection of teachers. Adaptability is of as much importance as ability. The introduction of the County Superintendent helped very materially in all these improvements, and it also brought about a uniformity in the County which was altogether lacking before. Nor did the improve-

ment stop there. By frequent consultations between the County Superintendents and the State Superintendent, there came to be, without hardly perceiving it, a uniformity between all of the schools in the State. In this great work the organization of the County Boards of Education had much to do. The County Boards are composed of the County Superintendent, the Township Trustees and the School Trustees of the cities or towns in the County.

The County Superintendents did not meet with complete favor at first, and several efforts were made to abolish the system, but all were thwarted, and now the Superintendents are so rooted and grounded into the school system as to be immovable. Another step forward was the law of 1889, providing for a uniform system of text books, under the management of the State Board of Education. Before that law was enacted the text book question was a very vexatious one, to parents especially. The books they purchased one year might not be good the next, and the books their children used in attending school in one township might be useless to them on moving into another. The buying of books was a heavy burden to parents, and many efforts were made to find a solution of the difficulty, and finally the Legislature put the whole matter in the hands of the State Board of Education, and text books for the entire State were to be advertised for, and the price to purchasers was fixed by law. This has been a great improvement on the old system, and has secured a uniformity in the books used, but the law still has some lame places. It does not give latitude enough to enable the Board to always secure the best text books, and the best is none too good for a school system as great as that of Indiana.

The scarcity of well-trained teachers was early felt as a

drawback to perfecting the school system, and the friends of popular education began to agitate the establishment of a Normal School for the training of teachers. We had schools to train lawyers, doctors, dentists, and preachers, why not one to train teachers. Teaching is as difficult a science as either of the others, but from some cause an idea had grown up that anybody could teach school, just as anybody could keep hotel. It was a mistaken idea, and one that had caused a good deal of trouble in the schools, and in many places had enabled persons wholly unfit to get employment as teachers. The revival of the interest in popular education which followed closely on the end of the war, brought with it an effort to have the State establish a Normal School. In 1865, among other comendable acts of the General Assembly was one to establish such a school. The friends of education had been striving for this end for ten years or more, and they were entitled to all credit for the victory they won.

The law provided that the school should be located in the city that would contribute most liberally toward its establishment. Terre Haute offered \$50,000 in cash and \$25,000 in land. No other city bid against that offer, and the school was located at that enterprising city. Suitable buildings were erected and the school was opened in January, 1870. This is the only school the State has of the kind, but there are several others maintained by private individuals.

Our present school system may be said to be the growth of the last thirty years. It is true that the constitution of 1816 made provisions for the establishment of a public school system, and that laws to carry those provisions into effect were enacted from time to time, but prior to the constitution of 1850 there were but few common schools, and they were scattered over the State. They were mainly de-

pendent upon local voluntary enterprise, and in no sense formed a State system. The people were permitted to open and maintain schools, but they were not compelled to do so. No State tax was levied, nor were the schools put under the supervision of any special officers. The framers of the new constitution were well convinced that a system of popular education was calculated to aid in the perpetuity of free institutions, and provided that the Legislature should take steps to the establishment of such a system.

A large school fund had been created and made productive, and public sentiment was in favor of the establishment of a high grade system. As has been stated in another part of this chapter, the Legislature promptly acted so as to carry out the provisions of the constitution, but its efforts were thwarted by the adverse decision of the Supreme Court, and for several years the whole system was deranged, and but little good accomplished. It was not, therefore, until 1865 that our present system was fairly started. Since then thousands of school houses have been erected, every modern appliance obtained, and teachers of the highest grade have been employed, until now the Indiana school system ranks among the foremost in the land. It may be that it has not yet reached the highest point of excellence obtainable, but it is pointed that way. A public school system is not calculated to produce profound scholars, its aim being to give every one a sufficiently practical education to enable the student to enter upon the business of life fairly well equipped.

There is one branch of a real popular educational system that has only lately been attracting attention, and that is the introduction of manual labor schools. Indianapolis has already made a start in this direction, and it is to be hoped

the other cities of the State will speedily follow its example. One of America's drawbacks has been the absence of educated labor. No reason can be advanced for a State training lawyers and doctors that cannot be much more forcibly applied to teaching other vocations. Especially is this true in regard to girls who are to be the future housekeepers of the State.

In looking to the future, and making provision for common schools, the early founders of Indiana did not intend to stop at the graded school, but contemplated making provision for a higher education. Colleges and Universities were embraced in this wide system, and, no doubt, those early fathers of the new commonwealth looked forward to a time when Indiana should have a great State University, which would take its place alongside of those of the older East. That their hopes have not altogether been realized has been no fault of theirs, but rather of circumstances, and of the later generations not following closely in their footsteps. Congress also looked to this end, and in 1804 gave to the State a township of land for the establishment of a seminary of learning. On October 10, 1806, Albert Gallatin, the great financier of the Nation, who was then Secretary of the Treasury, selected the township to be given to Indiana, locating it in Gibson County. It contained 23,040 acres. In September, 1807, the Territorial Legislature chartered the University, locating it at Vincennes, and gave to it the lands in Gibson County.

In December, 1807, the Board of Trustees organized, with General William Henry Harrison as President. He remained at the head of the board until 1811. About 4,000 acres of the land were sold by order of the Legislature, and a brick building erected at Vincennes. A grammar school

was started, to which the study of the languages was added. It had a hard struggle for existence, as the funds were all used in putting up the building, and the school had to depend upon tuition fees for its maintenance. Rev. Samuel T. Scott was the first President, and he filled that office until 1823, when Henry M. Shaw took the position. Soon after this the University suspended operations for lack of funds. The University Board held no meeting from 1823 until 1838, but in 1828 the County of Knox established the Knox County Seminary in the building belonging to the University. In 1838 there was a reorganization of the University Board, with Thomas Alexander as President. The old building and grounds were sold to the Catholic Church, for a small sum. In 1840 the new Board of Trustees re-opened the institution, electing Rev. B. B. Killikelly President. About the time the University suspended operations, the State sold the remaining land in Gibson County and applied the proceeds to the State University at Bloomington.

This was the cause of an immense amount of litigation, the friends of the Vincennes Institution claiming that the lands had all been given to that University. In 1844 a large number of suits were brought by the University against the purchasers of the Gibson County lands, but before a decision was reached the Legislature assumed the burden, and by an act passed in 1846, authorized the University to bring suit in the Marion Circuit Court against the State. This suit was fought for eight years, and in 1854 was finally decided in favor of the University by the Supreme Court of the United States. But this did not end the trouble of the University. The Legislature authorized an issue of bonds, to the amount of \$66,585, in favor of the University. Samuel Judah had been the attorney for the University, and retained \$25,000 of

the amount as his fee. The Board brought suit against Mr. Judah to recover a part of this amount, claiming that the fee was excessive, and this suit also hung fire for some time, but was ultimately decided against the University.

Among other privileges granted to the University was one to operate a lottery, and this provision also furnished its share of litigation. From the determination of the suit against Mr. Judah the institution has had a precarious existence, its fund being too small for any material enlargement of its field. About 1874 Congress gave to the University all the unclaimed and vacant lands in Knox County. This gift proved of material benefit, but still the institution has not received enough from the public to realize the high hopes of its founders. In the original charter it was provided that Indians should be maintained, clothed and educated free. But no Indians ever took advantage of this provision. The Departments of Law, Divinity and Medicine have never been opened.

In 1816 Congress again came to the help of the new commonwealth in matters of education, and gave to the State another township of land for the establishment of a seminary of learning. This township was located in Monroe County. In 1820 the Legislature appointed a Board of Trustees, for the seminary with authority to select a site. They located the new institution at Bloomington, and this became the parent of the present State University. It was not until 1825 that a building was ready for the use of the new seminary, and its opening was not very promising for the future. In that year Rev. Baynard R. Hall took charge of the seminary and opened the school. His salary was fixed at \$150 per annum. Two years later his salary was raised to \$400 a year, and he was given an assistant at \$300 per year. The



Electrical Laboratory



Engineering Laboratory

PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

next year, however, the Legislature raised the seminary to the dignity of a college, and the distinguished educator, Rev. Andrew Wylie was made President, a position he held until his death in 1851.

In 1838 the college was chartered as a University and its field very much enlarged, but the Legislature was still very economical in supplying funds for its proper maintenance. It was just beginning to build up, and get a fair start in the world, with a small but valuable library, when the main building was destroyed by fire. The State with considerable generosity stepped forward to the relief of the institution, and Congress gave it another grant of land. Since then the State has been more liberal than before, but still the institution has not been granted means enough to become the great University the State ought to have. In 1840 a law school was organized, and a flourishing medical school situated at Indianapolis is connected with the University. Many distinguished men have been educated at the State University, and it ranks high in its scholarship, and is worthy of all the State will give it.


The State has another college or university under its control—Purdue University at Lafayette. This is the youngest of the State institutions, but it is also one of the most vigorous, and has a bright future before it. In 1862 Congress gave to the State script calling for 390,000 acres of land, to be used for the endowment of a college for instruction in agricultural and mechanical arts. The State sold the script, realizing \$212,238, which was invested in Government bonds. In 1869 Hon. John Purdue offered to give the State \$150,000, and the County of Tippecanoe offered \$50,000 to have the college located in that County, and the people of the little village of Chauncey gave one hundred acres of

land. Since then the State has appropriated large sums, and handsome and commodious buildings have been erected.

The school was formally opened on September 17, 1874. The schools of the University are: 1.—School of Natural Sciences; 2.—School of Engineering; 3.—School of Agriculture. Under these schools there are regular courses in Agriculture and Horticulture, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Mining Engineering, Industrial Design, Natural History and Chemistry. Under the provisions of the law each County in the State has the right to send two students to the University under special privileges. They are entitled to enter, remain, and receive instructions under the same conditions, qualifications and regulations as other students, but they are not chargeable for room, light heat, water, tuition, janitor or matriculation fees. These students also have special privileges in the selection of rooms. In the order of their admittance they can select for their occupancy any room that may be vacant, thus giving them a prior right in a choice of the rooms of the college.

The State has other institutions for education, such as those for the deaf and dumb, and blind, at Indianapolis, and the reform school at Plainfield, but they are treated at length under the head of benevolent institutions.

The Legislature of 1897 took a great step in advance. As the State increased in population, the number of parents who would not give to their children the advantages offered by the public for getting a foundation for an education, increased, and it became necessary for some action to be taken to prevent the increase of illiteracy, and also to prevent idleness. The law provides that every parent or guardian of a child between the ages of eight and fourteen years, shall send the child to a public, private or parochial school for at



least twelve consecutive weeks in each school year. Children who have completed the first eight years of the school system are exempt from this compulsory attendance. Truant officers are appointed in each County, to carry out the provisions of the act. Where the parent is unable to supply the child with the proper books, or adequate clothing, they are to be supplied at public expense. For incorrigible children, who habitually absent themselves from school, "Parental Homes" are established.

Other great advancements in the system are now being agitated. In the Townships the need of "Supervising Principals" is being felt. The district schools have been advancing from year to year, and the good work of supervising principals in the cities have been so manifest that the Townships are desirous of taking this step in advance, and having an officer whose duty it shall be to more directly watch over the schools, helping and encouraging the weak teacher, and bringing forth a greater harmony of effort. The question of establishing Township High Schools is also agitated. As the State grows, and the desire for knowledge increases, the feeling for a school in the country districts, wherein those who reside in the country can have the benefit of the higher branches, grows, and it will not be long before high schools will be established in every Township.

The State has not been alone in its work for the advancement of higher education, but the various church denominations have been very active, and many of them now have institutions of which all the people may be justly proud. The first to enter this field were the Presbyterians. This denomination early felt the need of an institution for educating its ministry, the East not being able to supply the demand for this rapidly growing section of the great West,

and in 1825 it was determined to establish a college, primarily for the education of young men for the ministry. The Presbytery of Salem, which then embraced Indiana and Illinois, appointed a committee to select a site and take the necessary steps to organize an academy. Hanover church, Jefferson County, Indiana, was then the center of Presbyterian influence in this section of the country, and its people were mostly of Scotch-Irish parentage. This modest little church stood on a high and beautiful bluff facing the Ohio River, six miles below the town of Madison. The church had been built out of stone taken from the hill side. It had been named "Hanover" out of compliment to the wife of the first pastor, she having been a native of Hanover, N. H. There was no town, no village; it was simply a church for the neighboring farmers and their families. All north of this little settlement, clear to the lakes, was an almost unbroken wilderness. The Indians still roamed over a great part of the territory. The capital of the State had just been removed to Indianapolis, then a struggling village of only a few hundred souls.

Rev. John Finley Crowe was pastor of this little church. The people were poor, and the preachers were poor, but they were strong in faith, and in the belief that Indiana would, at no distant day, be a great State, and full of that faith, the Kentucky Synod to which the Salem Presbytery was attached, asked the pastor of Hanover church to open and conduct an "academy" until further provision could be made. On the 1st day of January, 1827, in a log cabin, the school was opened with six pupils. Such was the humble beginning of Hanover College, and the great McCormick Theological Seminary of Chicago. Just before the school was opened, the Synod of Indiana was constituted and the infant

school was placed under the direct management of the Madison Presbytery.

A charter was asked from the Legislature and granted, but the legislators were evidently afraid that such institutions might become monopolies, so it was provided that it should never own more than 160 acres of land. At that time land in that section of the State was worth about three dollars an acre. In 1829 a theological department was added, and the school was adopted by the Indiana Synod. The theological department in 1840 was removed to New Albany, and afterward to Chicago, where it became the great McCormick Theological Institute, so richly endowed by the late Cyrus McCormick. On the adoption of the school by the Synod, new buildings were erected on grounds donated by the late Williamson Dunn. The people of Madison, Hanover, and the surrounding country, gave the means to pay for the building. It is said that one gentleman was very anxious to give something, and having no money, gave his horse. This shows the spirit of the men of those times.

In 1834 it was chartered as a college by the Legislature, the charter, providing, among other things, that those students who were physically qualified should be exercised and instructed in some kind of mechanical or agricultural science. Under this provision, students cut cordwood, split rails, plowed fields, worked in a printing office, in a cooper shop and at a carpenter's bench. The manual labor department failed, however, and left the college burdened with debt. Hanover, however, had won an honorable name for itself as an educational institution, and it had a large list of students. The debt was a heavy burden on the institution, and while the friends were struggling to lift this load, a storm destroyed the college edifice. So strong was the force

of the wind that books, and pieces of furniture were carried across the Ohio River and scattered over the hills of Kentucky. The charter was surrendered and a receiver appointed by the Legislature. What property was left was sold for \$400. It was purchased by Williamson Dunn, who, when a new charter was granted, again gave it to the college. The college is now enjoying a very enviable prosperity and is one of the State's most honored institutions.

Maintaining and building up Hanover has not been the only work of the Indiana Presbyterians in the cause of education. Some six years after the opening of the Hanover school, in the log cabin on the Ohio, five Presbyterian home missionaries met at the little village of Crawfordsville, in Montgomery County. Talking over the needs of the church, and the people of this fast growing commonwealth, they determined to found a school especially for training teachers for the common schools. Williamson Dunn, who gave the land on which Hanover College was built, was present, and offered to give land for this school also. The offer was accepted, and after adopting a few by-laws, and appointing a Board of Trustees, the little company went out to view the land that had been given them, and select a site for a building. Making a selection of the spot, they all knelt down in the snow, and by prayer dedicated the ground to liberty and to God. The founders of this institution evidently believed there was something in a name, for the name they adopted for their poor infant was startling in its weight and length. It was called: "The Wabash Manual Labor College and Teachers' Seminary." The name strangled the infant, but did not quite kill it. It appears that even in those early days the subject of manual labor was attracting attention. It was a great misfortune that it was ever lost sight of as a part of our educational system.

The people of Crawfordsville did not take kindly to the institution, and gave but little material help to it. On the 3d day of December, 1833, after the building had been completed, the school was formally opened, under the charge of Prof. Caleb Mills, with an attendance of twelve students. It was a small beginning, but it was a beginning, and its friends were so much encouraged that the next year they applied to the Legislature for a charter, and, strange to say, this was opposed by some of the people of Crawfordsville. The charter was finally obtained, but it was a very illiberal one, and it took twenty years of persistent work to get it amended. Finally, through the good offices of the late Robert Dale Owen, the incubus of the old charter was taken off, and an era of prosperity began to dawn. While the institution was struggling with this illiberal charter it had other dark waters to pass through. It was in debt, and no one would give it any money. Rev. Edmund O. Hovey, one of its founders, went East to solicit aid, but it was all in vain, for some months, and in despair he looked around for some church in want of a pastor, where he could preach until he could earn money enough to return to Indiana, having exhausted all his own means.

About this time he was invited to preach, one Sunday, at Amesbury, Mass. He did so, and there presented the cause of his little school, and he did it with such success that a small sum was raised then and there. This was a rift in the clouds, and in a few months he had raised about \$1,500. He did more than this, he enlisted Rev. Elihu W. Baldwin in the cause, and got his promise to accept the Presidency. Mr. Baldwin secured pledges amounting to about \$25,000. He came to Indiana and assumed charge of the school, and it was determined to erect new and larger buildings. This

was done, but again the institution was burdened with a heavy debt. The first class was graduated in 1838, consisting of two students, one from Indiana and one from New York. Hope was budding in the breasts of its friends, when in September, 1838, the new building, with all it contained, was destroyed by fire. This was a terrible blow, but the plucky trustees at once began to make arrangements for a new structure. They borrowed the money and again put up a building. For forty years the college struggled along, burdened with debt and meeting one discouragement after another, but its way was steadily onward and upward, and prosperity came at last. It now has an endowment of more than half a million dollars.

The Baptists were not far behind the Presbyterians in having their attention turned to higher education. As early as 1832 they declared one of the needs to be schools of a higher grade than were then common, and they determined to open such a school. The little town of Franklin, Johnson County, offered to give eight acres of land as a site for such a school. It was not a large donation, especially as the land at that time was worth only ten or fifteen dollars an acre, but it was a start. It was not until 1835 that a building was erected, and the school was opened in June of that year. It was called the "Indiana Baptist Manual Labor School." The building was a modest little frame structure, costing about three hundred dollars. Two teachers were employed, and the school launched on an uncertain sea. The managers purchased eighty acres of land adjoining the college site, hoping that by a re-sale of the land, enough could be realized to pay for the erection of more permanent buildings, but the speculation proved an unfortunate one. As an evidence of how poor the college was in material wealth, it is

told that the trustees purchased a bell, and not having the money to pay for the erection of a bell-tower, the bell was hung in the forks of a tree, where it remained for several years.

In 1843 it was determined to make an effort to erect a new and larger building, and the eighty-acre tract of land was sold for a lot of brick. Many of the friends of the institution, who were desirous of giving something had no money, so they gave wares and merchandise, which were sold over the State, by agents of the school. Among other things thus given, were a number of clocks, and it was contemplated to dispose of them by peddling them over the State, but the laws of the State at that time were very severe on clock peddlers, so the scheme had to be abandoned. In 1844 a new charter was obtained, and the school took the name of "Franklin College." The first graduate was in 1847 and he was thirty-five years old at the time he took his degree. Three times in its history the college has been compelled to suspend operations—twice for want of funds, and once on account of a lack of students occasioned by the war. Once the entire institution came near being sold out on execution for debt, but the disaster was happily averted.

Amid seasons of hope and despondency the college struggled along until 1872, when it finally succumbed. Paradoxical as this may appear, this was the dawn of a better day for the institution. On the death of the old organization the "Franklin College Association" was born, and prosperous days at once came to the college. Twice before had the generous citizens of Franklin gone to the rescue of the institution, but this time they determined to take its control into their own hands, and the result has proved that it was a wise conclusion. The new association assumed the debts of

the old, and secured a title to the buildings and grounds at a foreclosure sale. The institution now has assets amounting to considerably more than \$300,000, which is steadily increasing. The college has eight distinct departments, not including music and painting, which are separate. Young ladies are received to the same course of studies and hours as the young men. Franklin College is another of those educational institutions in which the people of Indiana may justly take pride.

About the time that the Franklin school was organized, the Methodists of the State also concluded to erect for their denomination a great educational institution. It is related that this determination was hastened by a spirit of pique. The State University at Bloomington was then in operation, and the Methodists were desirous of having a representation on the board of trustees and faculty. To secure this end, a delegation of their ministers called upon Samuel Bigger, then Governor of the State, and presented their request to him. He declared, in a very emphatic manner, that he would not entertain their request. This aroused the ire of the preachers and they told him the Methodists would build a college that would surpass the State University, and would also defeat him for Governor. It was thus Indiana Asbury University was conceived. Mr. Bigger was defeated for reelection by James Whitcomb, a leading Methodist.

In 1835 it was determined by the Methodists to proceed at once to the work of founding their college. Several towns presented bids for its location, that of Greencastle being finally accepted. A charter was asked for and was finally granted by the Legislature, but only after a determined and prolonged fight. It is said that the Senate was equally divided on the question, but one of the most bitter opponents

of the charter was addicted to too much strong drink, and was often absent from his seat as a consequence. The friends of the college watched their opportunity, and one day, while he was out, called their matter up and scored a victory. It was on the 10th of January, 1837, the charter was finally granted to Asbury University.

On the 20th day of June, of that year, the corner stone of the new college was laid in the presence of twenty thousand people. The new building was not occupied until 1840. This building remained until February 10, 1879, when it was nearly destroyed by fire. This fire was a very disastrous one to the college, as it destroyed a large number of very valuable historical relics. The opening of the college was not deferred, however, until the building was completed, but the county seminary was leased and the school began. The first class consisted of only five young men, all residents of Greencastle. It is said that all five of the boys attended school barefooted and coatless. By 1839 enough students had put in an appearance to warrant the election of a President, and the choice fell on Matthew Simpson, who afterwards became so distinguished as a Bishop of the Methodist church. In 1843 the trustees made an arrangement with the Secretary of War to educate ten boys of the Choctaw Indians. The experiment was practically a failure, but it was the first effort of the Government to solve the Indian problem by education.

In 1846 a law department was added, and in 1848 a medical department was opened at Indianapolis, but both were permitted to languish and die for want of funds. During all those years, while the Trustees were ambitiously stretching out, adding new departments and increasing the number of professors, they were struggling with that worst of all

diseases—impecuniosity, and the institution had many ups and downs in consequence. The number of students grew much faster than did the permanent endowment fund, and thereby kept the institution heavily in debt. Since 1875 the University has received several large gifts, the largest being that of the late Washington C. DePauw. He not only richly endowed the college by direct gifts, but also added largely to its fund through his will. The institution now has more than fifty professors and teachers, and annually enrolls about one thousand students. The law and medical departments have been revived and are now in a flourishing condition. Owing to the great liberality of Mr. DePauw, the trustees changed the name of the institution to "The DePauw University."

The Methodists have two other schools in the State, a college at Moore's Hill, Dearborn County, and a Female Academy at New Albany. Both are very flourishing institutions and are practically feeders for the great University at Greencastle.

In 1852 the members of the Christian church took steps to establish and endow a college. Stock to the amount of about \$75,000 in \$100 shares, was subscribed, and Mr. Ovid Butler gave a beautiful grove in Indianapolis for a site. On this site a handsome building was at once erected, and the college was opened in 1855. It was one of the first colleges in the West to open its doors to females on the same footing with male students. It was called the "Northwestern Christian University." It flourished for several years in its new home, when the friends and trustees of the institution deemed it wise to remove it to a greater distance from the city, and it was taken to Irvington, and with its removal its name was changed to "Butler University," after its

founder and great friend, Mr. Ovid Butler. It now has property and an endowment amounting to about \$250,000.

The Friends have not been behind the other Christian denominations in advancing the cause of education. They were, indeed, among the first to feel the need of schools of the higher order. As early as 1821 they had evolved a system of schools in which moral training should be a prime factor. They began the work of soliciting subscriptions to put this elaborate system in full operation, but subscriptions were not as large as the designs of the Friends, and the raising of the funds proved a slow matter. By 1834 they had seventy of the schools in operation in different parts of the country. In 1832 they began agitating a school of a higher grade. A committee was appointed to solicit the funds, but the financial panic which came soon afterward proved a drag, and it took five years to make a beginning, and it was not until ten years later the school was opened. One hundred and twenty acres of ground were obtained, about one mile from the city of Richmond, and the school opened with fair prospects. The average attendance the first year was fifty-three. The school year was divided into two sessions of twenty-three weeks each, and the fees for board and tuition were from \$30 to \$35 a session. In 1859 it took the name of Earlham College.

Like all the other educational institutions, Earlham has had its ups and downs, but from the very first it has held an enviable position on account of the thoroughness of its course of education, and for the great moral atmosphere surrounding it. It has graduated a large list of men who have become prominent in many spheres of life. Its growth during the last few years has been very great, and it has received several large gifts, from wealthy and philanthropic

Friends, and now is on a safe and sure financial basis. The large grounds around the institution make it one of the most delightful educational establishments in the State.

The great Catholic educational institution of Indiana, and one of the great institutions of that church in the world, is Notre Dame du Lac, situated in St. Joseph County. It has had a remarkable history. It is purely the outgrowth of the missionary spirit of that religious organization. In 1841 Bishop Hailandiere, of the Diocese of Vincennes, applied to the religious society in France, known as the "Congregation of the Holy Cross," for missionaries to labor in Indiana. The French missionaries had been the first to carry the story of the cross to the Indians in this great section of the world, and their traditions still fired the hearts of the young enthusiasts in the mother country. Father Sorin, then a young priest, only twenty-four years of age, and six others of his order at once volunteered. On the 5th of August, 1841, the little band of seven started on their great mission. They had but little means and took steerage passage on a packet ship, landing in New York, September 13. They rested there three days, and then turned their faces to the West. They were twenty-five days in reaching Vincennes. They traveled from Albany to Buffalo by the Erie Canal, and then crossed Lake Erie to Toledo. By wagon and canal through Fort Wayne, Logansport and Lafayette they journeyed to Vincennes. The next day after their arrival Father Sorin started to St. Peter's, a missionary station in Daviess County.

It was the oldest mission of the diocese. It had a little frame church with two little rooms added. It also had a kitchen and a small room for a school. There the Society of the Holy Cross took up its quarters for the winter. The

mission had a farm of one hundred and sixty acres, and the new society set to work to improve it. They contemplated establishing a college at that place, but the Bishop objected. The Bishop finally told Father Sorin that he had a section of land on the St. Joseph River, near Lake Michigan, which he was willing the community might have, and on which he was willing they might build a college, provided they accomplished their task in two years. They prepared to start for this new home. The Bishop gave them a few hundred dollars, and with that they began their journey through the wilderness. It was a winter journey, and for days they struggled on, over the ice and snow, some on horseback and some with an ox team which hauled their little supply of provisions. The journey took ten days, but at last they stood on their new possession. The section of land lies between two very beautiful little lakes, and along the St. Joseph River. This, too, had been mission ground, and a little log church still remained.

It was anything but a cheering prospect. Here was an unbroken forest, and it was the depth of winter, but they set about making themselves as comfortable as possible. When spring came the total amount of money to the credit of the community, was less than \$1,500. With this they began to make plans for their college, a church and a novitiate. The college was to be a building 40 by 160 feet, and four stories and a half high. Sixty thousand feet of lumber, and two hundred and fifty thousand brick were contracted for. During the winter a log church was erected. The people could not give money but they gave their labor. The ambitious plans for the college building temporarily failed on account of the exhaustion of the funds, but a small building was erected, and in that the school opened. In 1844 the college was granted a charter by the State Legislature.

From that time it has prospered, notwithstanding it has passed through some dark trials. Like most of the other colleges of the State it suffered from fire, and on the 23d of April, 1879, the University with all its treasures was destroyed by fire. The work of rebuilding, on a far more extensive scale at once began. The University now comprises ten large buildings, all fitted up with the most modern appliances for study and for health. The surroundings are beautiful, and few more lovely spots can be found.

One mile west of the University is St. Mary's Academy for young ladies. The Academy buildings are large and commodious. It is under the direction of the Sisters of the Holy Cross.

Identified with the highest educational history of the State is St. Mary of the Woods, one of its pioneer institutions, founded in 1840 by the Sisters of Providence, from Ruilli-sur-Loire, Province of Brittany, France, and incorporated by the Legislature in 1845. This Academic Institution is situated in Vigo County, on the Indianapolis & St. Louis Railway, four miles west of Terre Haute. The site is a healthful and pleasant one, giving to the Institution the charms of a sylvan retreat, with its quiet, salubrious climate and nature's own incentive to study.

The buildings are spacious and elegant, furnished with every invention of modern genius for the comfort and well-being of the inmates. The class rooms, study halls, music halls, dining hall, the long and cheerful corridors, are all arranged with a view to the health and education of the pupils. The grounds are extensive and artistically laid out, with circling and intersecting concrete walks. Spreading trees, lovely shrines and attractive grottoes combine to render the recreation grounds a delightful resort. In the

United States St. Mary of the Woods is the principal house of the Sisters of Providence, whose schools now extend through the States of Indiana, Illinois, Nebraska, Michigan and Massachusetts, and from a struggling community of six members in 1840, the Sisters now form a prosperous congregation of more than six hundred.

To the munificence of the late Chauncey Rose Terre Haute and the State of Indiana is indebted for the great scientific school known as the Rose Polytechnic Institute. Mr. Rose, through all his life, had been the friend of education, and especially was he a friend of that system of education which taught the practical use of science. Possessed of abundant means, he determined to establish in Terre Haute a school after his own designs. He invited a number of his friends to unite with him and form a body corporate with that end in view. In September, 1874, the Association was incorporated, the objects of the corporation being the establishment and maintenance, in the County of Vigo, of an institution for the intellectual and practical education of young men. The name adopted was "Terre Haute School of Industrial Science." Instruction in the school was provided to be based on practical mathematics, and the application of the physical sciences to the various arts and manufactures, with other branches of active business, and was to include such training as would furnish the pupils with useful and practical knowledge of some art or occupation, and enable them to earn a living.

In December Mr. Rose gave his first contribution, it being a deed conveying to the new school ten acres of valuable land, and \$100,000 in profitable securities. A few days later he gave an additional \$86,000, and arrangements were at once begun for the erection of a suitable building. On the

11th of September, 1875, the corner stone of the college building was laid, with appropriate ceremonies. The name was then changed to the "Rose Polytechnic Institute." A month or two later Mr. Rose made the Institute another gift of \$140,000. He did not live to see the work completed, but in his will gave the Institute a bequest of \$107,000, and made it the residuary legatee of his estate. The work of constructing the necessary buildings and fitting them out progressed, but it was not until 1882 that the Institute was formally opened for the reception of students. To-day no polytechnic school in the country ranks higher than that at Terre Haute.

The latest of our educational institutions, but one, that has already attracted the attention of the whole country, is the Culver Military Academy on Lake Maxinkuckee. It was founded in 1894 by Mr. H. H. Culver, a citizen of St. Louis, Missouri. Mr. Culver was a wealthy and philanthropic man, whose heart was interested in the education of boys. He had a summer home on Lake Maxinkuckee, and there concluded to found his institute. The first building erected was a frame structure, which was destroyed by fire on the 4th of February, 1895. It was at once decided to erect new buildings, which would be practically fire-proof, and this work was done during the spring and summer of 1895. The school at once began to flourish. In September, 1895, the Missouri Military Academy, at Mexico, Missouri, was destroyed by fire. Mr. Culver at once made a proposition to its faculty to consolidate the institution with his Academy at Culver, which was accepted. This gave to the Indiana school an addition of seventy cadets at once, and necessitated the erection of another large building. The location for the Academy is one of the finest in the State.

Lake Maxinkuckee has long been regarded as one of the prettiest pieces of water in the whole country, and has been for years a favorite resort in the summer for those who desired an outing. Surrounding the Academy is a beautiful park of three hundred acres, thickly covered with maples, oaks and beeches, and free from undergrowth. These grounds are laid out with great taste and fitted in every way for the use of the students. A fine cavalry parade and drill ground is one of the attractions. The Academy is conducted on military principles, and is now the largest military school in the United States, with the exception of West Point. The lake furnishes excellent boating, and as athletics form one of the features of the school, the opportunities for a boat crew are highly appreciated. The Academy has been handsomely endowed by Mr. Culver.

A library system has become so much a part of the school system, that a history of the efforts made to build up a State Library and to create libraries in the Townships belongs to a chapter devoted to schools and colleges. The State Library was established in 1825, and the first books placed upon its shelves were a set of Bentham's works, given by the author through John Quincy Adams, who was then United States Minister at the Court of St. James. When these books were received by the State the Legislature determined to establish a State Library, and the sum of \$50 annually was appropriated to pay for binding such books as might be obtained, and \$30 were appropriated with which to purchase new books. This was a small beginning, and did not display on the part of the Legislature of 1825 a very great liberality in this direction, but it was a beginning. The library has not grown in a manner commensurate with the growth of the State in population and wealth, still it has grown. It now

contains about twenty-six thousand volumes and about the same number of pamphlets. The selections have not been well made at all times, but those who have occasion to consult the contents of the shelves will find some authority upon almost all topics. The Legislature has always dealt with the library in a penurious manner. With the exception of one year the appropriations have always been inadequate. For many years the manner of selecting a librarian was about the worst it was possible to conceive. The Legislature kept the selection in its own hands, and about every session saw a change in librarian. Such a course would destroy the best library in the world. In 1895 a change was made, and the library was put under the control of the State Board of Education. This will insure the retention of a librarian for such a length of time that he may know the contents of the library, and be of some value to those who desire to consult the books on the shelves. An interest in library work is being aroused that will secure more favors at the hands of the Legislature in the future.

In 1816, when the delegates selected to frame a constitution for the State were considering that instrument, they recognized the value of libraries, and in a clause of the constitution made it the duty of the General Assembly, whenever a new County was laid off, to reserve ten per cent. of the money received from the sale of lots in the county seat for the use of a public library, and they were at the same time to incorporate a library for that County.

In 1818 a law for the incorporation of public libraries was enacted. Several County libraries were established under this law. In 1852 a law was enacted providing for a tax of one quarter of a mill on the dollar, and twenty-five cents on each poll, to be used in the purchase of township libra-



CHAUNCEY ROSE.



JOHN PURDUE.



WASHINGTON C. DEPAUW.



EDWIN J. PECK.



H. H. CULVER.

ries. The conception of this law was in the right direction, but it had some very lame features. Those could have been rectified, and ought to have been. Between \$200,000 and \$300,000 were raised, and expended in the purchase of libraries. In 1867 there remained unexpended about \$50,000. This the Legislature diverted to the establishment of the Normal School at Terre Haute, and then repealed the law levying the tax. Fully one-half of the population of Indiana reside in the agricultural districts, and they were the ones to be benefited by maintaining Township libraries. The time is not far distant when every Township in Indiana will have a well organized and sustained library within its bounds.

Indiana has not been without citizens who have been devoted to the cause of education. She has not been so fortunate in that direction as many of the older States, nor has she had a Leland Stanford to endow for her a great university, nor a Rockefeller, for she has never had citizens who have piled up such colossal fortunes as those men have done, but she has had philanthropists and friends of education who have dealt liberally with the means they have possessed. All those who have contributed to build up our educational institutions cannot be named, but some deserve a place in the history of the State. Of those who have been the most liberal all are now dead, except Mr. Simon Yandes, who has given to Wabash College \$150,000.

EDWIN J. PECK.

Among the great friends of education Edwin J. Peck must be counted. He was a successful business man, accumulating a large fortune through his own energies and business capacity. He was not a native of Indiana, but was born near New Haven, Connecticut, October 16, 1806. He

did not come West until he had learned to appreciate the great benefits education confers. Born in New England, almost under the shadow of Yale, it is not to be wondered at that he became the firm and devoted friend of all educational institutions. On coming to Indiana, in 1833, he located first at Madison, but not long afterward becoming interested in the construction of the State House at Indianapolis, he removed to that city, and became the superintendent of construction of the new capitol. He also became interested in the construction of new bank buildings at Madison, Terre Haute, Lafayette and South Bend. He was one of the strong advocates of the construction of railroads, and for several years was one of the directors of the Indianapolis & Madison railroad, and was largely instrumental in pushing forward the Indianapolis & Terre Haute road, now known as the Vandalia. Of this road he was the first treasurer, and served in that capacity for several years, when he became president of the company. He managed the road until his death, and under his management it became known as one of the most successful roads in the West, if not in the whole country. In business matters he was quick, energetic and firm. He was one of those men whose word is as good as their bond. He had the confidence of all who knew him, and especially of those with whom he had business transactions.

He was liberal to all charitable objects, and well earned the name of philanthropist. He was an ardent member of the Second Presbyterian Church at Indianapolis, and when its present handsome structure was erected was one of the most liberal givers to the building fund. He gave to Wabash College \$118,000; to the Protestant Orphans' Home, at Indianapolis, \$10,000, besides distributing other large sums for charities. He died November 6, 1876.

JOHN PURDUE.

John Purdue, who has endeared his name to the people of Indiana as the founder of the Purdue University at Lafayette, Indiana, was born in Huntingdon County, Pennsylvania, on the 31st of October, 1802. His native village, Germany, located between two small mountain ranges, presented, during the years of his minority, all the scenes and incidents of pioneer life. It was a German settlement, as its name indicates, and the early residents were not blessed with any of the modern appliances that now lend a charm to farm life. Mr. Purdue's father, Charles Purdue, was a poor, hard-working, honest pioneer. John, the subject of this sketch, was the only son, the other seven children being daughters. Times were hard in the pioneer settlement then, and John Purdue was early on the list of "hired help." At the age of eight years he was first sent to a country school, where he at once evinced his natural taste for intellectual culture. He made rapid progress in his elementary studies, and after a few years of great industry, improving every opportunity, he became quite proficient in the English branches of study, and was himself called to the school room as a teacher. While still young, his father and family emigrated to Ross County, Ohio, near Adelpia, and thence to Worthington, Franklin County, seven miles from Columbus. After several years as a most successful teacher, Mr. Purdue visited Marion County, Ohio, where he purchased a quarter section of land, and at once went to farming.

We shall not follow Mr. Purdue step by step in his commercial life. It was a magnificent success for the individual, but not less so for education in Indiana. He went to Lafayette in 1837, but did not locate there permanently until

1839, when he opened a store of general merchandise, and accumulated a large fortune, which was ever freely distributed for benevolent and educational purposes. His commercial operations in New York city, during the civil war, were characterized by wonderful business foresight, unflinching integrity and substantial rewards—so much so that Mr. Purdue's name became a tower of credit in that city. He was truly the king of the produce merchants in that great metropolis during his business residence there.

In any historical sketch of Purdue University will be found a complete account of the transaction upon which was based the changing of the name of the "Agricultural College" to that of "Purdue University." Suffice it to say here, that, upon certain conditions, Mr. Purdue agreed to give to the Board of Trustees the amount of \$150,000. This beneficent gift, besides locating the institution near Lafayette, placed it upon a firm financial footing, and gave it a needed start toward a successful completion of the high aim of its Board of Trustees.

In the months of June, July and August, of 1876, Mr. Purdue had not enjoyed good health, but nothing serious was apprehended. On September 12 he visited the Agricultural Works, in which he was interested, and Purdue University, and stopped for a time at the Lahr House, his real home, where he had furnished rooms. During the afternoon he went to the Hygienic Institute, feeling much better than usual. After eating a slight lunch and chatting with the inmates of the house, he retired to his rooms, where, about 5 o'clock p. m., he was found dead, lying upon his face upon the floor, he apparently having fallen while attempting to reach the door. The cause of his death was doubtless apoplexy, with which he had long been threatened.

Mr. Purdue lived an honest, upright life. Eulogies that tremble on the pen would fail to do him justice. He seized every opportunity of doing good as it presented itself, and it was only through his last and crowning act that the students of Purdue University enjoy the manifold privileges now spread before them. His words of counsel were always characterized by appeals for honesty and integrity. These principles he admired above all else. He was a careful reader of the Bible, and had in his library numerous works relating to the Scripture. He was on intimate terms with many of the students, and always had a pleasant, encouraging word and a sunny smile for each.

WASHINGTON CHARLES DEPAUW.

Indiana owes a great debt to Hon. Washington C. DePauw. His broad philanthropy led him to give largely of his accumulation of money for charitable and educational purposes. Mr. DePauw was a native of Indiana, having been born in Salem, Washington County, January 4, 1822. Indiana had only been a State six years when he was born; Indianapolis was a hamlet of only a few houses. Salem was the Indiana Athens at that time, having the best schools in the young State. Thus Mr. DePauw had the advantages of excellent schools. From his boyhood days he displayed remarkable business instincts. Before he reached his maturity he was appointed Deputy Clerk of the courts of Washington County, and at the age of twenty-two was elected Clerk. This office he held until 1853, when he organized a bank and became its president. He had invested his savings in saw and flour mills and in real estate, and had conducted the business so successfully that he was a rising

capitalist when he organized his first bank. The bank of Salem soon became known as one of the safest and most successful banking institutions in the State, and as his accumulations increased he branched out and invested his funds in several directions, soon becoming one of the leading bankers in the State. He displayed wonderful administrative abilities in the management of his various business enterprises, and it seemed he was successful in every direction. During the war he purchased for the Government vast amounts of grain and provisions for the use of the armies in the field. He also invested largely in Government bonds, being one of those who had full faith in the final success of the Union cause. When the war ended the bonds rose rapidly in value and added immensely to his wealth.

He began investing more largely than ever in manufacturing industries. Having removed to New Albany he became the leader in all public and business matters. He took hold of an iron mill that had become bankrupt, and by his energy and executive ability placed it upon a paying basis. He did the same with a large woolen mill, but his crowning triumph in that line was in the introduction of the manufacture of plate glass. France, Belgium and England monopolized the manufacture of plate glass, and they held the prices so high in this country that plate glass was one of the most expensive of luxuries, and could only be enjoyed by a few. Several attempts to manufacture it in this country had been made and failed, the operators losing large sums of money. Such an attempt was made at New Albany, and Mr. DePauw had backed the enterprise very largely. It, too, was on the eve of failure, when he took the direction of its affairs. About this time he received word from Europe that he had better cease his efforts or the manufacturers there

would combine and break him up. This only stimulated him to renewed exertions, and his pluck finally solved the problem, and the plate glass industry became a fixed fact in America.

Mr. DePauw was always large in his charities, and no appeal was ever made to him in vain. He was a prominent member of the Methodist Church, and to it his gifts were always liberal. The poor of New Albany had in him a warm and sympathizing friend, and his means were always ready for their relief. For many years he gave annually a thousand dollars to the fund for the support of worn out preachers in the Methodist Church, besides making large contributions to the missionary and other church benevolences. He was a friend of education, and when the Female College, operated at New Albany, by the Methodist Church, failed for the want of funds, he stepped in to its help. For several years he contemplated devising in his will a large portion of his fortune to the endowment of an educational institution of high order, that was to take the family name. He had freely discussed this matter with his family and friends. He had not determined where the college should be located, but favored leaving that to the judgment of his executors.

Finally the friends of Asbury University, the great educational institution of his church in the State, and of which he had been a Trustee for many years, approached him and urged that he make that institution the beneficiary of his will. They offered to change the name to DePauw, but to that he strongly objected upon many grounds, and finally the college authorities offered to retain the name of Asbury for the college of liberal arts, and to give the name of DePauw to the whole group of colleges. Mr. DePauw finally

expressed a willingness to give largely to the institution, but wanted the church to do something also. After much negotiation it was agreed that Mr. DePauw would give to the University a large sum and then provide that it should have a very large per cent. of his property at his death. The institution took on new life at once. Mr. DePauw died suddenly at Chicago. His estate has not yet been settled up, so it cannot be told just how largely the University has been endowed by him, but the sum will probably be in excess of \$1,000,000.

CHAUNCEY ROSE.

Few men have done more for Indiana than Chauncey Rose. He was born on a farm near Weatherfield Meadows, Connecticut, December 24, 1794. He died at Terre Haute August 13, 1877. He survived his six brothers and his sister, all of whom died childless, so he was the last of his race. He had but little opportunity for education, and that only through a brief attendance upon the common schools of his district. He was of Scotch ancestry, and his firmness of will, great energy, unyielding integrity marked him in childhood as it did all through his mature life. Mr. Rose settled in Terre Haute, in 1818, two years after Indiana was admitted into the Union as a State. At that time there were but two cabins in Terre Haute, and the nearest boarding place was at Fort Harrison, the spot made famous by its defense by Zachary Taylor, against a large force of Indians, during the last war with Great Britain. The next year he moved to Parke County and entered into the milling business. He returned to Terre Haute in 1825, and lived there until his death. He entered into merchandising, and became one of the best known merchants in that part of the

State. He invested his profits in real estate, and in the selection of his purchases exercised great foresight, so that all he bought rose rapidly in value, as the little town grew in population. His farms soon became city lots and he a wealthy man. He was energetic in the work of securing railroads to the city of his residence, and was mainly instrumental in the construction of the Indianapolis & Terre Haute, and the Evansville & Terre Haute roads. He was long the principal owner of the Indianapolis & Terre Haute road, and managed it with rare skill.

There were few great business enterprises in Terre Haute in which he was not interested. He was ever ready to take hold of any proposition that promised to assist in the growth of his city or County. He was broad-minded in every way—in business, in benevolence and in feeling for the calamities or misfortunes of others. He was strict in enforcing payment of what was justly due him, but often refunded the money to those who were distressed by paying it, but pay it they must. He was just as strict in discharging his own obligations. He always kept a private purse for charity, and annually gave way a great deal of money for the relief of the distressed. His own manner of living was simple, and it is said he frequently cautioned the members of his own household against making expenditures, saying it would be taking the food from some poor orphan's mouth. He was never an idle man, and one of his methods of relaxation from the cares of business was to work about his lawn, trimming trees, planting them, or otherwise beautifying the place.

As an illustration of some of the peculiar traits of his character, the story of his connection with the administration of the estate of one of his brothers may well be told. His brother died in New York, and left an estate of

\$1,000,000 for charitable purposes. Mr. Rose discovered that under the peculiar laws of New York the estate could not be administered so as to carry out his brother's intentions, so he went into court and contested the will, and after nearly six years of costly litigation got a decree declaring the will void. This left him sole heir to the vast estate. He then turned around and voluntarily disposed of this large sum in accordance with the declared intentions of his brother in his will.

Mr. Rose was a liberal contributor to all the churches in Terre Haute, and a regular attendant upon church services. When he left his mother's roof to come West he promised her that he would pay her an annual visit at the old homestead, and this visit was rarely omitted, and many of the journeys were made on horseback. After her death he gave the old homestead to the town, and with it a sum of money to put it in repair and improve it. He also gave \$2,000 to the town library and \$12,000 to endow an academy. He endowed the Rose Free Dispensary, the Rose Orphans' Home, and the Rose Polytechnic, and gave very largely to the Ladies' Aid Society. All these benefactions were in Terre Haute, and to them Mr. Rose gave more than \$1,000,000.

H. H. CULVER.

Although, in the broad sense of the word Mr. Culver was not a citizen of Indiana, his name must hereafter be linked with Indiana history, and he be given a place among her philanthropists. Mr. Culver was born near New London, Ohio, in 1840. He received a common school education, and upon arriving at his maturity entered into business at Springfield, Illinois. He afterward went to Mattoon, and

then to Kansas City, and from there, in 1873, to St. Louis. He was a most successful business man, and rapidly accumulated money. He was one of those who believed that education is the best start in good citizenship, and his help in this direction was freely extended. It is said he assisted more than a score of young men to a collegiate course. He married an Indiana lady, and thus became identified with this State. Her home had been on Maxinkuckee, the beautiful lake in Northern Indiana, where the Culver Academy is now situated. On this lake Mr. Culver had a summer home, and to it he was wont to repair to rest from the cares of business. He was large-hearted, large-brained, and he conceived the idea that on this beautiful lake was the ideal spot for an academy for young boys. He was also a believer in discipline, and that discipline was the actual foundation of character, and his mind turned to making the school he contemplated one to be conducted on the same theories and practice as the great military school of the Government.

In 1894 the new school was opened, but the first buildings were destroyed by fire, and newer ones had to be erected. These he determined should be as near fire proof as it was possible to make them, and that they should be fitted up with every convenience to make school life not only comfortable but attractive in the highest degree. Such buildings were at once erected, and the new school began its career under the finest of auspices. The United States Government has fitted the Academy out with the finest and most improved arms, and military science is now taught in every branch. Mr. Culver only lived to see his great scheme get fairly underway, when death came to him. He died at St. Louis, September 26, 1897.

WILLARD CARPENTER.

In Stratford, Orange county, Vermont, on March 15, 1803, was born Willard Carpenter, whose name stands near the head of the list of great philanthropists in Indiana. His life, up to the time he came to Indiana, in 1837, was an adventurous one. He was one of a very large family of children, and got what education he could while toiling with his father and brothers. At the age of nineteen he found himself in possession of seven dollars, money he had earned by hard labor, and saved up, a few pennies at a time. With this limited capital he started out to make his own way in the world. He was full of courage, and possessed an iron will. He bought a stock of notions and became a peddler. He tramped from Stratford to Albany, and from Albany to Buffalo, disposing of his wares, and from Buffalo along the lake shore to Ohio. There he took a contract to clear a piece of ground, and was to take his pay in grain. He then taught school for awhile for fourteen dollars per month, which also he was to take in grain. He then tried tanning and shoe-making, for a time. By this time he had saved up enough to provide himself with a horse and a watch, and still have some capital left. With these he started on his return trip to Vermont. He fell in with some three card monte men, and they soon had his money and watch, but he had kept his horse. He hired out as a raftsmen on the Mohawk, but lost his wages by the raft being seized for debt. He was not discouraged by these unfortunate events, but went to work on the canal with a pick and shovel. After awhile he had saved enough to go into business, and pursued a business career for ten years at Troy.

In 1837 he settled in Evansville, and made that his home

during the remainder of his life. He soon became an active business man, and established a reputation for his energy, foresight and enterprise. He took great interest in the internal improvement system the State was just then engaged in, especially in the construction of the canal to Evansville. When the system fell to the ground owing to the bankruptcy of the State, he became a great advocate of railroads, and spent his money freely to promote such enterprises. He was large-hearted and charitable, and gave away large sums to relieve the poor and needy. He was especially the friend of all young men who were struggling to get a start in business. He founded the Evansville Christian Home for friendless girls, and gave the city of Evansville ten acres of land for a park, and then gave \$400,000 to establish a library in the city. It is now one of the finest libraries in the State. In his honor it is called the "Willard Library."

CHAPTER XIX.

LAWS AND COURTS.

Under the French rule, which existed over the territory northwest of the Ohio, from the establishment of the first post until 1763, the only laws known were such as were sent out from Versailles for the special government of the colonies. They were definite and minute in some matters, but in other important particulars the Governors of the colonies were left to their own wills. In 1732 a code known as the "common law of Paris" was extended over the French possessions in America outside of Canada. Much of the code was not adapted to the condition of affairs existing in the sparsely settled regions, and it was often necessary for the preservation of the various posts that the commandants should exercise arbitrary authority. From all that can be learned the authority thus exercised was never oppressive, and was generally acquiesced in by the settlers at the posts. No courts or judges were in existence. In most cases the commandants at the posts decided the questions at issue, and in the others he called together some of the most important citizens, who heard the cause and gave judgment. But few causes for lawsuits could arise, as none of the settlements consisted of more than fifty or one hundred families, and as they held their land in common, cultivating only so much as would furnish them the necessities of life, they had nothing to quarrel about.

When the territory was ceded to England by France, the Common Law of England was extended over it by proclamation, but no efforts were made to enforce it, and no courts were established. In fact, there was but little occasion for law of any kind. The British made no attempt to settle any part of the territory, and only occupied a few of the posts with small military forces which were amenable to military law. Instead of attempting settlements west of the Alleghany Mountains, every effort was made to prevent settlers from crossing the mountains. No records can be found that the British even established any such minor tribunals as justices of the peace, in any part of the territory northwest of the Ohio River. Certainly none such were established in that part of it now known as Indiana. They did not think it worth while to even take possession, until 1777, of the post at Vincennes, the only place where there were any civilized people, and it remained in their possession but a short time.

When General Clark conquered the territory, Virginia set up a claim to jurisdiction over it, but did not deem it practicable or necessary to attempt to establish any courts until 1779, when John Todd was appointed County Lieutenant for the County of Illinois, the whole territory being known by that name at that time. He sought to establish a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction at Vincennes. The Commandant of the post, Colonel J. M. P. Legras, was made President of the Court. No record of any action by this Court remains, except its assumption of the right to make grants of land, and it exercised that authority with royal liberality, most of the grants being made to the members of the Court.

After General Arthur St. Clair was appointed Governor

of the Northwest Territory, he began to organize the Territory for a better government. The capital was established at Marietta, on the Muskingum River. He arrived at that place in July, 1788. Samuel Holden Parsons, James Mitchell Varnum and John Cleves Symmes had been appointed Judges of the Territory. Under the ordinance of 1787 the Governor and Judges had a right to enact laws for the government of the Territory, or rather they were authorized to adopt and publish in the District such laws of the original States as might be suited to the District. They had no right to make and publish original laws. This court at Marietta, contrary to the advice of Governor St. Clair, enacted quite a number of original laws, and endeavored to put them in force. The matter was taken to Congress, and a resolution disapproving of them was adopted by the House. In 1795 the Governor and judges met at Cincinnati and enacted a number of laws adapted from those in existence in the original States. They treated the laws promulgated at Marietta as being still in existence, but their validity was questioned until 1799, when they were re-adopted by the Territorial Legislature.

In 1800 the District was divided and General William Henry Harrison appointed Governor of the Indiana Territory. The laws that had been enacted at Cincinnati were in force in the new Territory of Indiana until they were superseded by others adopted by the new Court. William Clark, Henry Vanderburgh and John Griffin were appointed Judges of Indiana Territory. The Governor and Territorial Judges met in Vincennes, in January, 1801, and passed ten laws on various subjects, one of which was to establish courts of general quarter sessions of the peace in the Counties of Knox, Randolph and St. Clair. The first Court held

legally in Indiana began its first session on the 3d of March, 1801. A grand jury was impaneled and the machinery of the Territorial government was fully set going. In 1807 all the laws of the Territory were revised and re-enacted by the General Assembly, thus making those of doubtful validity legal. According to this revised code, treason, murder, arson and horse stealing were punishable with death. Whipping was recognized as a sufficient punishment for a number of smaller crimes and misdemeanors, such as hog stealing, bigamy, burglary, larceny and disobedience to parents.

When the Territory entered upon its second stage of political existence, Benjamin Parke, James Scott and Waller Taylor had been appointed Judges of the General Court of the Territory by the President. In 1814 Congress authorized the Territorial Legislature to lay off the Territory into five districts, each of which was to elect a member of the Territorial Council. By this time the question of the jurisdiction and powers of the various Courts which had been established began to be troublesome. In January, 1814, the General Assembly of the Territory had attempted to reorganize the judicial system. By this law the State was divided into three judicial districts. One of the Judges appointed by the President was to act as Presiding Judge in each of these districts, and provision was made for the appointment of three "Associate" Judges in each County, who were to sit with the Presiding Judge in the trial of all causes. This did not suit the Judges appointed by the General Government, and was in conflict with the powers conferred by Congress on the Court. Benjamin Parke, one of the Judges, and one of the ablest jurists Indiana has ever known, soon after the passage of the act referred to, addressed the following letter to Governor Posey:

“By an act, entitled ‘An act reorganizing courts of justice,’ passed at the late session of the Legislature, the Territory is divided into three districts, in each of which a circuit court is established—the court to consist of one of the judges appointed by the government of the United States for the Territory, as president, and three associates, commissioned under the authority of the Territory, and to have jurisdiction in all cases, at law and in equity. The first circuit, comprising the counties of Knox, Gibson and Warrick, is assigned to me. The Legislature is empowered to make laws, in all cases, for the good government of the Territory, not repugnant to the laws of the United States. In the delegation of power, that which is not expressly given is reserved. Implications cannot be admitted further than to carry into effect the power given. The laws of the United States being paramount to the laws of the Territory, if they are found in conflict, the latter must yield to the former. Congress has defined the jurisdiction of the judges appointed by the general government, and made one judge, in the absence of the others, competent to hold a court. The judges are co-ordinate, and their jurisdiction extends over the whole Territory. They are judges *in and over*, and not of *a part* of the Territory. As the judges derive their jurisdiction and power from the government of the United States, they cannot be controlled, in the exercise of their functions, by persons deriving their authority from the government of the Territory. The judges appointed for the Territory are limited, by the laws of the United States, to the exercise of a common-law jurisdiction. The act, therefore, as it regards the organization and jurisdiction of the circuit courts, is repugnant to the laws of the United States, and neither confers any powers, nor imposes any duty, on the judges

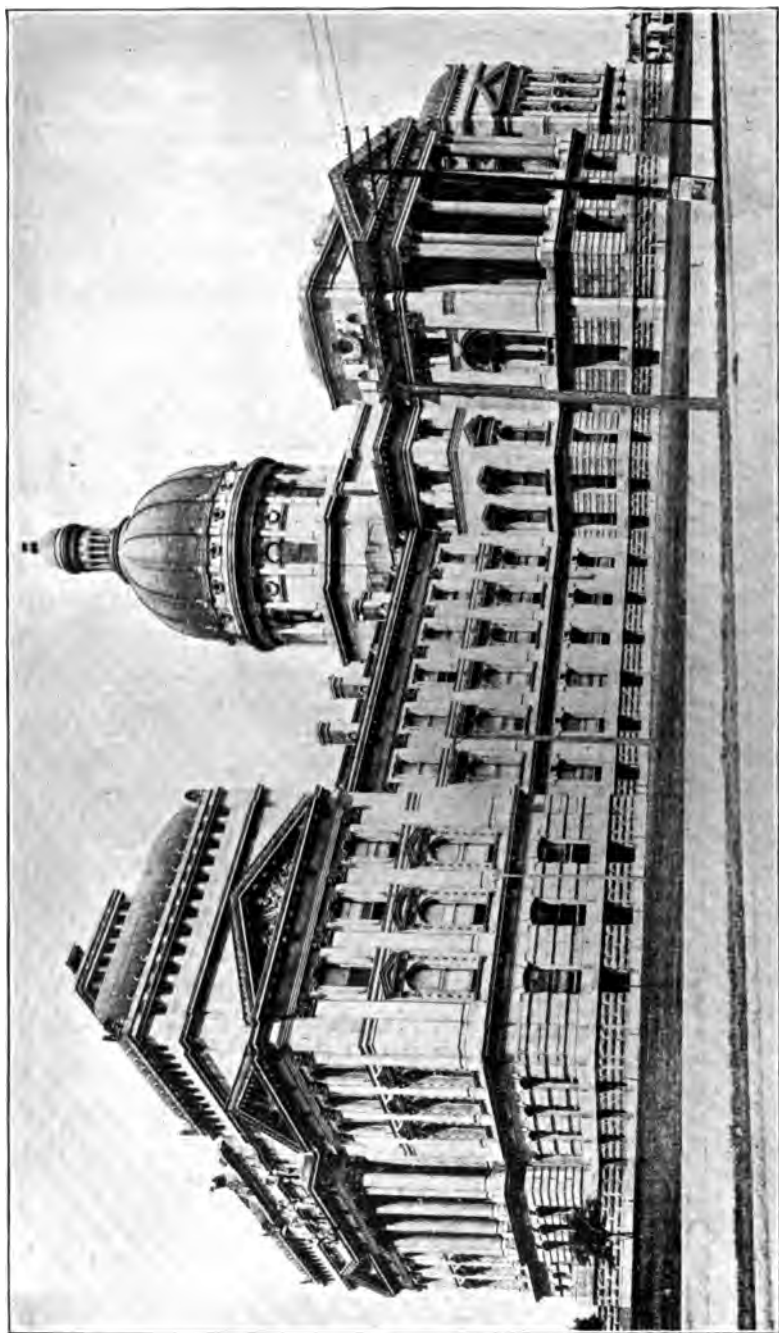
appointed for the Territory by the United States. The general government has appointed for the Territory three judges, with a common-law jurisdiction; but *when, where, or in what manner* they are to hold a *court*—or rather exercise the jurisdiction with which they are invested—Congress has not provided. I consider it is the duty of the Legislature to do it. To you, sir, it belongs to watch over the affairs of the Territory, and to see that the laws are faithfully executed; and, on account of the relation in which I stand to the Territorial government, I have thought it my duty to make this representation to you. The peculiarity of the case leaves me no other mode of stating my objections and the cause of my not conforming to the law. The Legislature has organized certain courts, and assigned me to perform certain duties; but the law, constituting the one, and directing the other, is unconstitutional; and as I can derive no authority from it, it imposes no obligation. I shall, therefore, not hold the courts for the circuit.”

Thus the elaborately wrought out judicial system was knocked out and the Territory was left to the Judges appointed by the General Government. Governor Posey realized the situation and called the General Assembly to meet at Corydon, August 15, 1814. The main duty of that session was to organize some kind of a judicial system. That the difficulties in the way may be better understood, it is well to turn to a memorial addressed by the Legislature at that session to Congress. The memorial said:

“By a law of Congress, one of the judges, appointed by virtue of the ordinance for the government of this Territory, is authorized to hold a court. Thus, one of the judges being competent to hold a court, may decide a principle or point of law at one term; and, at the next term, if the other two

judges are present, they may decide the same principle or point of law different. Thus, the decisions of the Superior Court, organized, we presume, by the general government, finally to settle in uniformity the principles of law and fact, which may be brought before them by the suitor, may be, and frequently are, in a state of fluctuation; hence the rights of persons and property become insecure. There is another evil growing out of the system of one judge being competent to hold the Superior Court, or that court which forms the last resort of the suitor in any government, and particularly in the Territory, for appeals are taken from all the courts of inferior jurisdiction in the Territory, to the court organized by the ordinance, which inferior courts are never constituted of less than two judges. Thus, the suitor in the Territory is frequently driven to the necessity of appealing from the judgment of two men to that of one. But this dilemma only constitutes a part of the solecism for the next Superior Court, as the other two judges may overturn the principles of the decision of their brother judge at the preceding term. Hence, the want of uniformity in the decisions of the court of last resort. Anger and the warmth of suitors, and a confusion in our system of jurisprudence, is the result."

At the same session the General Assembly established another Court. It divided the State into three judicial circuits, and made provision for holding courts therein, and defined the jurisdiction of such courts. The Governor was invested with the authority to appoint a presiding Judge in each circuit, and two associate Judges in each County. By the law the Governor was required, in selecting his presiding Judges, to choose men "learned and experienced in the law," who were citizens of the United States and "who had



THE STATE HOUSE.

regularly practiced in some of the courts of the United States, or in this Territory, three years." Congress soon after the receipt of the memorial of the General Assembly, changed the law so as to require the presence of at least two of the Judges to constitute a Court.

The whole question was solved two years later by the admission of Indiana as a State into the Union. Benjamin Parke was appointed Judge for the District of Indiana, by the President, and held that office until his death in 1835. Under the constitution of 1816 the judiciary powers of the State, both as to matters of law and equity, were vested in one Supreme Court, in Circuit Courts, and such inferior courts as the General Assembly might establish. The Supreme Court was to consist of three judges to be appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate, and to hold their offices for a term of seven years. The General Assembly was given authority to give the Supreme Court original jurisdiction in capital or chancery cases where the President of the Circuit Court might be interested or prejudiced. The Circuit Courts were to consist of a President and two Associate Judges; the Presidents of the Circuit Courts were to be elected by the General Assembly, in joint session, and the Associate Judges by the voters of the Counties. Each County was to have two Associate Judges. The President alone or in connection with one of the Associate Judges could hold a court, and the two associates, in the absence of the President could hold a court, but could not try capital or chancery cases. The constitution also provided for the selection of clerks for the various courts; that for the Supreme Court was to be chosen by the Court, and clerks for the Circuit Courts were to be elected by the people, but no one could be elected who had not previously obtained from

a Judge of the Supreme or Circuit Court a certificate that he was qualified for the place. Under the constitution a competent number of justices of the peace were to be elected by the people.

The constitution of 1851 made several important changes in the judiciary. It provided for a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts and such inferior courts as the General Assembly may determine upon. Instead of being appointed by the Governor the Supreme Judges are elected by the people of the State, although they must be chosen from certain defined districts. The term of service was reduced from seven to six years. The General Assembly is empowered to give the Supreme Court such original jurisdiction as it may determine upon at any time. Under the constitution as originally adopted the Supreme Court was to consist of not less than three nor more than five Judges, but several efforts have been made to increase this number. The Supreme Court is required to give a written opinion in every case, and upon every question arising in the record or in the decision of the lower Court. The choice of a clerk of the Court was taken from the Court and given to the people. Associate Judges were done away with in the Circuit Courts. The new constitution provides that no one elected to any judicial office shall be eligible to any other office during the term for which they have been elected, other than a judicial one. The General Assembly was given authority to modify or abolish the grand jury system.

The first three Judges of the Supreme Court, under the State administration were James Scott, John Johnson and Jesse L. Holman. Scott and Holman served until 1831, but Johnson only served a few months and was succeeded by Isaac Blackford, who served until 1853. In creating in-

ferior courts the Legislature established what were known as courts of Common Pleas. These Courts were given exclusive jurisdiction in probate matters, and concurrent jurisdiction with the Circuit Courts, in some other matters. This created great confusion. All the Courts assumed to pass upon the constitutionality of laws enacted by the General Assembly, and the State witnessed the anomaly of having laws enforced in one County, and declared unconstitutional in another. When the Legislature enacted the prohibitory liquor law in 1855, some of the Circuit Judges declared it constitutional and enforced it, while others declared it void. This lasted until the Supreme Court finally overthrew the law entirely. The confusion grew worse after the Common Pleas Court was established, for then some Counties were operating under two different laws at the same time, according as the opinions of the Judges differed. This confusion could not last, and finally the General Assembly abolished the Courts of Common Pleas, and in Counties where the business was too great to be transacted by the Circuit Courts, Superior and Criminal Courts have been established, with well defined jurisdiction.

Several times the Supreme Court has been overburdened with work, and measures of relief have been sought. The first experiment was the establishment of the Supreme Court Commission, consisting of five members, appointed by the Judges of the Supreme Court. The Commission was to consider and pass upon such causes as might be assigned them by the Supreme Court. This Commission was kept up for some years, but it presented so many anomalous features that it was also finally abandoned. In 1893, as a temporary experiment, the Legislature established a Court of Appeals, a sort of intermediate Court between the Su-

preme and Circuit Courts. This Court was to consist of five Judges, elected from specified districts, and to continue for four years. The Legislature of 1897 continued the life of the Court for another term of four years.

The constitution of 1851 provided that "The General Assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this constitution, shall provide for the appointment of three commissioners whose duty it shall be to revise, simplify and abridge the rules, practice, pleadings and forms of the courts of justice. And they shall provide for abolishing the distinct forms of actions at law now in use; and that justice shall be administered in a uniform mode of pleading, without distinction between law and equity." Under this section the laws of the State were codified, and a new system of rules and practice introduced. The laws were again revised in 1881 by a Commission appointed by the General Assembly for that purpose, but this revision was never adopted by the General Assembly. Since then there has been no general revision. Under the constitution no law can take effect until it has been printed and distributed to all the Counties of the State, unless the act itself declares the existence of an emergency. It is proper to say that but few acts are permitted to escape the emergency clause, the framer always deeming that the demand for the enactment of his measure is so great that it absolutely amounts to an emergency.

By the constitution the General Assembly is limited to biennial sessions of sixty-one days each, including Sundays and holidays. The actual working days of a session are only about fifty. Now that the State has grown so large in population, and with such great and diversified interests, these sessions are all too short for the adequate transaction

of business, and wild and reckless legislation has been the result. Under the constitution juries in criminal cases are the sole judges of both the law and the facts; they fix the degree of the crime and assess the penalty. While a Judge has actually no voice in deciding the law of a case tried by a jury, if the jury errs in the law the Judge does not hesitate to grant a new trial. Capital punishment has been abolished for all crimes except those of treason and murder in the first degree, and even for murder in the first degree the jury may, in its discretion, change the punishment to imprisonment for life. This power of the jury to determine the punishment to be assessed against the violator of the law, has been materially modified by the law enacted in 1897, known as "the indeterminate sentence law." By this act the jury decides upon the guilt or innocence only, in many cases, and the Judge, in pronouncing sentence leaves the term of the imprisonment to be determined by the Board of Prison Control. That is, the Judge certifies to the Prison authorities, the crime committed, the minimum and maximum term of imprisonment fixed by the statute, and the good behavior of the convict determines the actual length of his confinement. If his conduct is such as to impress the authorities with the belief that he has reformed, and if permitted to go at large will live as a law abiding citizen, they can release him at any time, but under no circumstances can they hold a prisoner for a greater length of time than the maximum term of imprisonment fixed by the statute, or release him before he has served the minimum. The constitutionality of this law has been questioned, and some Judges have held it to be invalid, because of the fact that it takes from the jury the power to determine the extent of the punishment.

Up to the present time the Courts of the State have been remarkably free from anything like scandal. Charges of corruption have at times been made against individual Judges of some of the inferior Courts, but even they have never been maintained. Except in one, or possibly two instances, no attempts have ever been made to influence the Court by outside or political pressure. The first case of the kind was in 1830. At that time the Governor appointed the members of the Supreme Court, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. In 1830 Governor James B. Ray took umbrage at the action of some of the members of the Supreme Court, it is charged because they refused to aid him in his Senatorial aspirations, and as the terms for which they had been appointed had expired, he attempted to remodel the Court. He re-appointed Judge Blackford, but refused to re-appoint Judges Scott and Holman, sending in the names of Stephen C. Stevens and John T. McKinney, in their stead. This action of the Governor created intense excitement throughout the State. It was the first time the constitution of the Court was made to hinge upon the personal preferences or personal ambition of one man, and the people looked upon it as an attempt to prostitute the Court. At first the Senate refused to confirm the new men, and this added fuel to the flame of excitement, and the State was torn into factions. Finally the Senate yielded to the Governor and Stevens and McKinney were confirmed, but Ray's popularity was destroyed. Up to that time he had been the most popular man in the State, but ever afterward was one of the most unpopular.

It was not until the administration of Governor Whitcomb that the question of politics entered into the composition of the Court. For the first quarter of a century of the

State's history the men selected for those high positions had been chosen for their peculiar fitness, without regard to what party in politics they adhered. Governor Whitcomb was a party man of the strictest sect, and when he was elected party politics ran high in the State. The doctrine that to the victors belonged the spoils was then taking fast hold on the political sentiment of the people, but the effort to construct the highest Court of the State on party lines almost resulted in a revolution, so great was the excitement and indignation. Contrasted with the methods of the present day it shows what great changes have taken place in public sentiment. When Governor Whitcomb entered upon the discharge of the duties of his office, the Judges of the Supreme Court were, Isaac Blackford, who had been appointed in 1817, Charles Dewey, who had been appointed in 1836, on the resignation of Stephen C. Stevens, and Jeremiah Sullivan, who had been appointed in 1837, to succeed John T. McKinney. Without any disparagement to the eminent men who have occupied seats on the Supreme Bench it can be said that the Bench in 1843 was, all things considered, the ablest the State has had. Blackford was a Democrat and Dewey and Sullivan were Whigs. They had each been selected for their peculiar fitness for the position. Their terms expired and Governor Whitcomb sent in the names of Blackford, Samuel E. Perkins and Thomas L. Smith. They were all Democrats. The news of this action of the Governor flashed over the State and at once created the most intense indignation. The Senate confirmed Blackford, but refused to consent to the appointment of Smith and Perkins. A bitter debate took place in the Senate, and a long and acrimonious contest with the Governor followed. Governor Whitcomb was peculiarly set in his ways and

opinions, and could illy brook opposition. The newspapers took the matter up and one attack on the Governor followed another. He would not yield, but when the Senate rejected his nominees he promptly sent in the names of other gentlemen, and they were as promptly rejected.

This contest was kept up until the close of the session of the Legislature. After the adjournment of that body the Governor sent to Dewey and Sullivan temporary appointments, to last until the next meeting of the Legislature. When it did meet he again renewed his efforts to place two Democrats upon the bench, but they were rejected as fast as the names were sent in, and again the session closed without filling the vacancies. The Governor then sent Judge Dewey another temporary appointment. Before accepting it the Judge called upon the Governor and told him he should decline the temporary appointment, unless the Governor would assure him that at the next session of the Senate his name would be sent in for the regular appointment. The Governor informed him that it was his intention when the Legislature again assembled, to nominate Judge Dewey and Mr. Perkins. On that understanding Mr. Dewey accepted the temporary appointment. When the Legislature did meet the names of Perkins and Thomas L. Smith were again sent in, and Judge Dewey accused the Governor of breaking faith with him. Judge Dewey carded the public through the newspapers, openly charging that the Governor had broken faith, and a fierce newspaper war ensued. It was the general understanding that Governor Whitcomb did intend to nominate Judge Dewey, but was turned from his purpose by Ashbel P. Willard, who was just then becoming a political power in the State. Perkins and Smith were finally confirmed by the Senate, and the giving of a political

bias to the Court was fully established. Since the adoption of the new constitution, making those offices elective by the people, candidates have always been named by political parties. It may well be questioned if the method of making political Judges has improved the judiciary. To such a point has the desire for office reached that to get a nomination a man must now work and toil, scheme and plot and make combinations, so that many of the ablest and purest men of the State will not enter the race for official position.

As the character, abilities and virtues of the men who were called upon to interpret the laws of the Legislature, and their relation to the constitution and the rights of the people, had much to do with stamping the character of our institutions, and fixing the State in its proper place in history, it will not be out of place at this point to give a short sketch of the three men, who have done more than others to give a lofty tone to the judiciary of the State. Isaac Blackford was born in New Jersey, in 1786. He graduated from Princeton college at the age of twenty, and immediately entered upon the study of the law, having determined to make that his profession. On receiving his license to practice he removed to Dayton, Ohio, but remained there only a short time, coming into Indiana, making Brookville his home. Not finding the opening there he desired he removed to Salem, and when Washington County was organized he was made Clerk of the Court and Recorder of the County, these two offices being frequently combined in those days. In 1815 he was appointed one of the Territorial Judges and removed to Vincennes. The position on the Bench not suiting him at that time he resigned and engaged once more in the practice of law. He was a member of the first Legislature under the State government, and was

chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives. In 1817 he was appointed by Governor Jennings as a member of the Supreme Court and held that position until 1853. As a Judge he was upright, fearless and impartial. He was a profound lawyer, and was a close student of the higher principles of law, and to the determination of a case he always brought close application, a clear mind, sound judgment and great patience. No question in a case was too trivial to be closely studied and analyzed.

His legal opinions were always prepared with the greatest care and he bestowed upon them great labor. They were often re-written several times before they reached the state of perfection he aimed at. They were always clear, always dignified, always precise. He collected and edited the decisions of the Supreme Court from its organization until the adoption of the present constitution, and his reports have always been regarded as authority. In politics he was originally a Whig, but in 1836 he refused to support General William Henry Harrison for President, because he believed that gentleman to be too strong an advocate of slavery, and from that time he always sided with the Democrats. He was in no sense of the word a politician, but in 1825 was a candidate for Governor of the State, and was defeated by James Brown Ray. In 1855 he was appointed by President Pierce a member of the Court of Claims, in Washington, and held that position until his death, which occurred on the last day of December, 1859. He lived the greater part of his life alone. He was not misanthropic, but had the tastes and habits of a student.

Charles Dewey was a large man mentally and physically. He stood six feet high and weighed two hundred pounds. He was born in Massachusetts in 1784, and was educated at

Williams college. In 1816 he came to Indiana, making Paoli his home. It was not long until he commanded a very large and lucrative practice. He took great interest in politics and twice was a candidate for Congress, but was defeated each time. For twenty years he assiduously practiced at the Bar, and reached the very highest point in the estimation of the people and his fellow members of the Bar. In 1836 he was appointed, by Governor Noble, a member of the Supreme Court. He brought to the Bench a ripe knowledge of the law, and great energy. For twelve years he remained a member of that Court and continually grew in the estimation of the people. He fully sustained his high reputation as a lawyer, and added to the reputation the Court had already obtained. He died in 1862.

Jeremiah Sullivan was a Virginian by birth, and was educated at William and Mary's College. During the last war with Great Britain he served in the army, attaining the rank of Captain. In 1817 he came to Indiana, settling at Madison, where he at once began the practice of law. In 1837 he was appointed to the Supreme Bench, and served for nine years with great distinction. He was an able lawyer, and as a Judge his opinions were always clear. His opinions were models of legal composition. He was a writer of great versatility, and contributed largely to the newspapers of the day, always under a nom de plume. His writings contained a rich vein of humor and satire that made them very pungent. He died in 1870, on the very day he was to take the oath of office as Judge of the Criminal Court at Madison.

In the early years of the State the power to grant divorces was reserved to the Legislature. Several times the exercise of this power reached almost into the borders of the scandalous. The whole thing was ex-parte. The petitioner

would file his petition, setting up his grounds for asking to be relieved from his marital obligations, and upon that petition the Legislature would take action, without taking evidence on either side of the question. Frequent attempts were made to have divorce matters relegated to the Courts, but they were all opposed. Finally, one day a Senator presented a petition from a man asking for a divorce on the ground that his wife had given birth to a colored child. Horrors of horrors! Such an offense certainly entitled the petitioner to all the relief asked for, and many indignant orators took occasion to descant upon the enormity of the wife. Just as the vote was about to be taken, and when it was assured that the prayer of the petitioner would be granted by a unanimous vote, the Senator arose and stated that he had neglected to give the Senate one piece of information, and that was, that both parents of the child were colored. This little trick showed the absurdity of legislative divorces and the power to grant divorces was delegated to the Courts.

The Legislature early took decided grounds against dueling, and as early as 1814, enacted a very stringent law on that subject. Among other things it provided, that all persons elected to office, or appointed thereto, either civil or military, in addition to the usual oath, should be required to swear that they had neither, directly nor indirectly, given, accepted, or knowingly carried a challenge to any person or persons, to fight in single combat or otherwise, in or out of the Territory, since the first of February, 1814, and that they would neither give, accept, nor knowingly carry a challenge to such combat during their term of office.

Prior to 1835 all taxes were levied on lands, by the acre, and not according to valuation. The land was divided into

three classes, and taxes levied according to the class in which the land belonged. In 1835 the Legislature provided for a valuation of the land and for the levying of taxes according to such valuation. This law provoked great opposition among the people at first, but was finally acquiesced in by all, and it has been followed from that time to the present.

Justice shall be administered freely and without purchase, completely and without denial, speedily and without delay.—Section 12, Bill of Rights.

In the light of the judicial history of the State it would look as if this section in the Bill of Rights was inserted in a spirit of irony. So many delays have been provided for by statute, so many obstacles have been built up by Courts, and so loose has been the practice of juries, that justice is oftener thwarted than upheld. The rights of the people to have justice upon those who violate the laws have almost been lost sight of in the statutes of the State and in the rules of practice adopted by the Courts. The vexations of the law's delays are as great in modern Indiana, as they were when Shakespeare thought they were enough to justify a man in making his quietus with a bare bodkin. Penal laws have been made without number almost, and penalties have been attached, but their enforcement has been hampered in a hundred ways, until the people have sometimes been forced to resort to the speedy action of lynch law, but oftener have suffered in silence, witnessing criminals going unwhipped of justice, or inadequately punished for their crimes.

CHAPTER XX.

BANKS.

Indiana, in its short history, has had many ups and downs in a financial way, sometimes being on the very hill-tops of prosperity, and then it has gone down into the depths of business prostration. It has tinkered with all kinds of currency, from the very good to the extremely bad. Like all the other States, especially those of the middle west, Indiana had to go through a very severe sweating process before it finally obtained a safe and secure system of banking. In fact, it was not until Congress enacted a National Banking Law that the State got out of the terrible slough into which it had fallen through a very loose and dangerous banking system it had inaugurated. The State started right, but finally a craze for speculation created a demand for a greater volume of currency, and the legislators yielded to the demand and opened up a wide field for making paper money, which resulted in bankruptcy and ruin to thousands, and caused great distress to many thousands more. In the early settlement of the Territory, such a thing as money was practically unknown, peltries being used as the only currency. All values were based upon what the article would bring in coon skins, muskrat skins and other furs. Such a state of affairs could only exist in a sparsely settled country, where manufactures were unknown, and

the only trading done was for the actual necessities of life. In those early days the settlers raised on their little farms about all they needed to sustain life, and their purchases were limited to salt, iron, dye-stuffs and a few articles of that character. For those they exchanged wheat, corn, hogs and peltries.

Spanish milled dollars, and a few notes of the Bank of the United States, or some one of its branches, occasionally found their way into the Territory, but this supply soon became too small for the transaction of the business which was constantly growing. The war with Great Britain caused an era of prosperity. The Government was disbursing large sums of money for troops and supplies, and this influx of currency created a speculative mania and prices went up accordingly. Indiana had no distinctive currency of its own, but in 1814 the Territorial Legislature chartered two banking institutions, one at Vincennes, which was to have a capital stock of five hundred thousand dollars, and one at Madison with a capital of seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The capital for these two banks was soon subscribed and their bills put in circulation. This added to the flood of currency that had been coming into the Territory from the General Government. But dark days were ahead for Indiana. The war with Great Britain came suddenly to an end; the large disbursements by the Government ceased, and financial distress followed. During the war specie payments had been suspended by the banks; the banks, especially those in the West, had issued far more currency than they could redeem. Most of that which had been disbursed by the General Government in this Territory had been bills of banks in Ohio, and they were nearly all swept away by the financial maelstrom.

When the members of the first constitutional convention in Indiana met, they put a clause in the organic law relating to banks that was well considered. It read:

"There shall not be established or incorporated in this State, any bank or banking company, or moneyed institution for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to order or bearer: Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to prevent the General Assembly from establishing a State bank, and branches, not exceeding one branch for any three counties, and to be established at such place within such counties as the Directors of the State Bank may select: Provided, There be subscribed and paid in specie, on the part of individuals, a sum equal to thirty thousand dollars."

It was also provided that the bank at Vincennes and the one at Madison, chartered under the Territorial Government, should retain their charters. It was also provided that the General Assembly might, at its pleasure, adopt either of such banks as a State bank. On the first of January, 1817, the bank of Vincennes was adopted by the Legislature as a State bank. The powers of the corporation were enlarged and an additional capital of one million dollars was authorized. Of the ten thousand shares of new stock authorized, three thousand seven hundred and fifty were to be reserved for the State, to be subscribed for from time to time by the Governor; private individuals, and companies, and corporations were authorized, under certain rules and regulations, to subscribe for the remaining six thousand two hundred and fifty shares. The bank was empowered, conditionally, to adopt the Farmers' and Merchants' bank at Madison, as one of its branches, and to establish other branches. Branches were established at Brookville, Corydon and Vevay.

The bank thus enlarged and with such increased powers, at once entered upon an era of mismanagement that soon wrought widespread ruin. In 1821 its reckless management caused the General Assembly to authorize legal proceedings to cancel its charter. Among other things charged and proved were, the contracting of debts to double the amount of deposits; the issuing, with a fraudulent purpose, of more paper than the bank had means for redeeming; the declaring and paying of large dividends to the stockholders, while the bank was refusing to pay specie for its notes, and embezzling \$250,000 deposited by an agent of the United States in the bank for safe keeping. The notes of the bank and its branches, except those of the bank at Madison, became wholly worthless. Those of the Madison bank were ultimately all redeemed.

This crash came at a time when the State was suffering from the great depression which followed the ending of the war with Great Britain, and added immeasurably to the distresses of the people. Added to the commercial disasters of 1821, '22 and '23 was an alarming death rate among the people. It has been estimated that during those three years, at least one-fourth of the entire population either died or moved out of the State. Every kind of business was prostrated. The Government, in a vain attempt to help, added to the ruin. Prior to that time the price of Government land had been two dollars per acre, and Congress, thinking that reducing the price would stay the tide of disaster, fixed the price at one dollar and a quarter, but it only added to the ruin, for the reduction of the value of Government land, reduced just in the same proportion, all the land in the State held by individuals. In 1832, however, the State began its work of internal improvement. It borrowed several mil-

lions of dollars in the East, and by giving employment to large numbers of men created another artificial era of prosperity for awhile, and speculation once more began on a grand scale. Just at that time Michigan was wrestling with the currency question, and by a very liberal banking law had permitted the establishment of a number of banks, many of them virtually having nothing back of the notes they issued. The contractors on the canals and other public works in this State took advantage of this cheap money in Michigan, and used it nearly altogether in paying their laborers.

Thousands of dollars of this currency were paid out weekly by the contractors, and soon nothing else was afloat in Indiana. The merchants were compelled to take it, but did so at a heavy discount, the laborers, who had earned it, always getting the worst of the bargain. The merchants could not use it to pay their debts, except at a great shaving. At the same time millers, merchants and others issued bills. As a rule these bills, or "shin-plasters," were only redeemable in merchandize at the store or mill of the issuer. While the issuer maintained his credit at home they circulated very freely in his immediate neighborhood, but were of no value anywhere else. Most of the merchants and millers eventually became bankrupt and left thousands of dollars of their currency unredeemed. Asbury University, the great educational institution of the Methodist church, issued a great many of these "shinplasters," made payable in currency "when the University should have the funds." It is proper to say that the University eventually redeemed every note.

At the session of the Legislature in 1834 the State bank of Indiana was chartered. It was to have a capital of \$1,600,000, in shares of \$50 each, and of the entire capital stock

the State agreed to take one-half. It was provided that the State should borrow the sum of \$1,300,000. Of that amount \$800,000 were to be used in the payment of the State's share of the capital stock of the bank, and the remaining \$500,000 were to be loaned out at six per cent. interest to individual subscribers to the stock, to assist them in paying for the same. That is, on each \$50 share, the subscriber would pay \$18.75 and the State would pay for him the remaining \$31.25. The bank was required to hold the dividends on this stock, and pay the same to the State in discharge of the interest accruing, and to reimburse the State for the loan. By this means the individual stockholder was enabled to secure his stock by only paying actually \$18.75, on each \$50, the profits soon paying for the entire stock and the interest.

The State was divided into ten districts for branches, provision being made for the creation of three other districts. The bank was authorized to receive deposits, buy and sell gold, silver, bullion, and foreign coins; discount commercial paper and issue bills payable to the bearer. The bank was not at any time to suspend specie payment. The branches were to be mutually responsible for the redemption of all bills issued, but each branch was to have its own profits. No notes were to be issued of a less denomination than \$5, and the Legislature reserved the right to raise this limit to \$10. The State was to elect the President and one half of the directors, the stockholders to elect the remaining directors. On all applications for loans of \$500 or upward it was required that at least five of the seven directors should concur in making the loan. No loan to exceed \$5,000 was to be made without the consent of the Mother bank. By a rule the banks would not loan to exceed \$200 to any mer-

chant, the whole idea seeming to be to develop the resources of the State by loaning money to farmers and those engaged in buying and selling farm produce and live stock. Great care was exercised in making all loans. The applicant for a loan was required to state fully his financial condition, for what he intended to use the money, the financial condition of the men he proposed to offer as endorsers, and then the directors would take the matter under advisement. They would make inquiries in the neighborhood of the party desiring the loan, as to the personal habits of the proposed borrower and as to the characteristics of his wife and family, so far as industry and economy were concerned. When the reports from these inquiries would be received, the directors would hold a solemn meeting and pass upon the application for the loan.

The only tax that could be levied on the bank or its stock was provided for in the charter. By that charter the Directors were required to deduct and retain in bank each year, from the dividends declared, the sum of twelve and one half cents on each share of stock, other than that held by the State. This tax amounted to twenty-five cents on each \$100 of the stock of the bank held by individual stockholders. Compare this with the tax now levied upon banks, and it will be seen how banks were favored in the early days of the State. One bank in Indianapolis, with a stock valued at only \$110,000 more than the individual stock of all the branches of the State Bank, paid, in 1897, \$13,365.00 as tax, against the \$2,000 paid by all of the branches of the old State bank. It must be remembered, also, that in those days the tax was to be paid out of dividends only, and if the bank failed to make money no tax was paid, while now the tax has to be paid whether any profits arise or not.

Soon after the granting of the charter, books for stock subscriptions were opened, and the work of obtaining the \$800,000 was begun. It required several months of persistent canvassing to secure the necessary subscriptions. Stock was solicited in every part of the State, and the field was cleaned several times. There were but few men in the State who possessed means to go into a banking business. And the subscriptions were all for small amounts, the largest individual subscription to the branch in Indianapolis being only \$5,000, the subscriptions ranging generally from \$500 to \$1,500. At last, however, the entire amount was subscribed and on November 20, 1834, the bank opened for business. The credit of the State was good, and it was able to sell its bonds in London at a premium, and its bank investment proved to be a very fortunate and profitable one. By the charter it was provided that the semi-annual payments of interest on the loans made to individual stockholders, the funds which should be received in payment of such loans, the dividends declared and paid on the stock held by the State, together with any part of the money procured by the sale of the State bonds which should not be required to pay for the stock subscribed by the State, and all money received by the State on winding up the affairs of the bank, should constitute a Sinking Fund, reserved and set apart, principal and interest, for the purpose of paying off the State bonds when they became due. The Commissioners of the Sinking Fund were required to carefully loan out all money received from the bank, in the way of interest or dividends, after paying the interest on the State loan, so that the money received by the State should be constantly earning more money. The residue, after paying the interest on the State loan, redeeming the bonds,

and paying the necessary expenses, was to form a permanent fund appropriated to the cause of common school education. So large were the profits of the bank, and so carefully were they hoarded by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, that the school fund realized something more than \$3,000,000.

This bank was a complete monopoly. Its charter was to run for twenty-five years, and during its existence no other bank could operate in the State. No bank in the history of the country was ever more carefully conducted, or more uniformly successful in its business operations than the State Bank of Indiana. It had hardly got into successful operation when the financial panic of 1837 struck the country, and it was temporarily compelled to suspend specie payments, but that did not operate against its credit, and its bills were taken everywhere at their face value. The panic was a bad one, and business in all parts of the country was practically wrecked. In 1842 the Legislature ordered the bank to resume specie payment, and from that date it ever stood ready to meet all demands for the redemption of its notes.

The establishment of the State Bank, and the great system of internal improvements the State had entered upon, brought an era of prosperity, but it was to bring an aftermath of distress and ruin, the like of which had never been experienced in the State, not even during those three distressful years, 1820, '21 and '22. To comprehend all the misfortunes which fell upon the State a brief review of the condition of affairs throughout the whole country is necessary. The financial measures adopted and enforced under the administration of President Jackson, and the party struggle which followed, will always be a marked period in the his-

tory of the country. When President Jackson assumed the reins of government the United States Bank was on the top wave of prosperity. From some cause President Jackson deemed the bank a dangerous power, and resolved to break it down. It is not necessary, at this date to discuss the questions which arose between him and the bank, or argue as to whether he was right or wrong in his conclusions, or in the methods which he adopted. In this history we have only to deal with the results which followed. The United States Bank was the great depository of the Government funds. President Jackson determined to withdraw those deposits, and place them in a number of other banks, to be selected by himself and the Secretary of the Treasury. At that time the Secretary of the Treasury was William J. Duane, of Pennsylvania. He was ordered by President Jackson to withdraw the Government deposits from the United States Bank, but he refused to do so, declaring that the laws of Congress made it obligatory to deposit the Government funds in the bank, and that they could only be removed by order of Congress. At that time the Government had no great treasury vaults in Washington and New York, as at present. The present sub-treasury scheme had not then been wrought out. The President promptly removed the Secretary of the Treasury, and appointed in his place Roger B. Taney, of Maryland; who obeyed the wishes of the President.

The time of Jackson's Presidency was a period of great material progress in the country. The completion of the Erie canal had made the northern lake region easily accessible, and immigration poured into those rich regions. Steamboat navigation on the western rivers increased rapidly. Between 1830 and 1834 the number of steamboats, plying on

the western waters, increased from one hundred and thirty to two hundred and thirty, and their tonnage nearly doubled. As a result, the valleys of the Mississippi and its tributaries were more widely opened to settlement and commerce. Railroad building also began in earnest. In 1830 only twenty-three miles were in operation; in 1835 the number of miles had increased to one thousand and ninety-eight, and within the next two years four hundred more miles were added. At that time the railroads had not leaped the mountains, but the agitation for them had begun in what was then the great west. Great schemes for connecting the Atlantic cities with the Mississippi were attracting attention both in this country and in Europe. Canals for the transportation of freight were being projected everywhere, and work on many of them had been commenced.

All these things naturally stimulated speculation. The fertile acres of the Great West, being brought nearer to Eastern markets, rapidly rose in value. Nor was the West alone in this rapid rise in values, but the South enjoyed its full share. Cotton, which had only brought six and eight cents a pound rose to eighteen and twenty, and cotton lands were in great demand. Never had there been such a rosy outlook for the United States. There was a rush of immigration to Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Wisconsin, and even into Missouri. Among all the Governments of the world the United States was the only one that had made any effort to pay off its national debt. This, with the rapid extension of steamboat and railroad traffic, attracted the attention of the holders of idle capital in England, of which at that time there was a vast amount. Any kind of American securities were readily bought in London and Amsterdam. Thus it was that money flowed into the United States in a large and steadily increasing stream.

It was just at this time that the Government deposits were drawn from the United States Bank, and turned over to a number of State institutions. These new depositories were instructed by the Secretary of the Treasury to expand their accommodations to individuals, and to loan money freely. Having millions of dollars of the funds of the Government at their command, they followed the injunctions of the Secretary to the fullest extent. Money being plenty and easily borrowed added to the furore for speculation. The impression soon prevailed that the United States Bank was doomed to a final downfall, and the hope of getting deposits of Government funds, greatly encouraged the establishment of new banks in the various States. In 1830 there were only three hundred and thirty State banks in the country. By 1837 they had increased to six hundred and thirty-four, and the capital had expanded from sixty-one millions in 1830 to nearly two hundred and ninety-one millions in 1837. These were all banks of issue, and in 1830 had floated in the way of paper currency sixty-one millions, and in 1837 one hundred and forty-nine millions. Behind this vast amount of paper money there was in 1837, only thirty-eight millions of specie. The loans of the banks had increased in proportion to their issue of paper. In 1830 their loans were two hundred millions, and in 1837, five hundred and twenty-five millions.

It is strange that no one saw the ruin that was sure to follow such a great expansion of the paper currency, backed by such a limited amount of specie. But they did not. Bankers and people alike seemed to have been possessed with the idea that the way to make the country rich and prosperous was to establish banks, issue currency and loan money. The inflation of the currency, and of prices, went

hand in hand, and the inflation was accompanied by reckless debt-making. The characteristic feature of the speculative mania which seized upon the people was land buying. It was looked upon as the most promising investment, and everybody bought Government land right and left. The speculator paid for the land with bank notes. These bank notes went from the land office to the deposit banks, Government funds, and were loaned out again to the speculator, to purchase more land. Again and again the notes found their way from the banks to the land office, and back again to the banks. It was an apparently perpetual circle the Government disposing of its lands, and after all holding nothing for them but the certificates of deposit in the banks.

To show how this speculative mania increased, the following figures will be pertinent. In 1832 the receipts from the sale of lands were only \$2,623,000; in 1834 they were \$857,000; in 1835, \$14,757,000 and in 1836, \$24,877,000. The speculator would buy land from the Government for \$1. per acre, and as soon as the purchase was completed, estimate his land at from eight to ten dollars per acre. The more land he bought and the more money he borrowed from the banks, the richer he imagined himself to be. All values were inflated enormously. The importation of foreign merchandise increased in the same enormous proportions. At those times one writer has said: "It was a universal carnival in which people seemed to vie with one another in madness of venture and expectation." As the importations increased, the receipts from customs swelled; as the Government receipts swelled, so did its deposits in the favored banks, and as the deposits enlarged the banks widened the loans. The public deposits in the thirty-five favored banks

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BIRDSEYE VIEW OF INDIANAPOLIS—1897.

rose from \$10,223,000 on January 1, 1835, to \$41,500,000 on June 1, 1836.

The Government debt was paid, and this accumulation of so large a surplus alarmed the politicians, and Congress, in the session of 1835-6 agreed upon a method of checking the evil. Congress had never taken very kindly to the changing of the deposits from the United States Bank, many of the members believing that the influence of these favored banks, scattered throughout the country, would give the administration a dangerous control over the moneyed interests of the country. Many remedies were proposed, and looking at the matter now, it would seem that Congress and the President agreed in taking the worst. The bill which was finally agreed upon provided that the deposits of public funds in any one bank should not exceed three-fourths of its paid up capital stock; that the banks should pay all drafts on the public deposits in specie if required; that no bank should have any public deposits that failed to redeem its circulating notes in specie, or that circulated notes of a less denomination than five dollars; and finally, that the surplus funds at the disposal of the treasury on January 1, 1837, reserving five millions, should be deposited with the several States in proportion to their representation in the Senate and House of Representatives, to be paid back to the United States at the call of the Secretary of the Treasury. The President approved the bill, but in his next message to Congress gave good reasons why he should not have done so.

But little judgment had been shown in the original distribution of the Government funds among the State banks. The distribution had served to place capital arbitrarily in different parts of the country, without much regard to the requirements of legitimate business. The new law still

further disarranged business, by taking from some banks the excess of deposits and placing them in others. As if to still further widen this disparity between the legitimate needs of business and the funds, the clause of the law to distribute the funds to the various States was injected. The effect of the law was to hurry on a crisis, which had to come sooner or later. On January 1, 1837, the surplus available for distribution to the States amounted to \$37,468,859. That surplus was nominally in the banks, but in reality was in the hands of borrowers. Withdrawing it from the banks, simply meant to take it from business or speculation. It was impossible to make the funds again immediately available for business purposes, and it was tantamount to suddenly contracting the currency to that amount. The funds passed under the control of the several States, some of which used them for public improvements, some for educational purposes, and some for other objects. The money eventually found its way again into the channels of business, but not soon enough to avert the calamity.

The distribution among the States was not to be made all at once, but in four quarterly installments, but the banks holding the deposits had to prepare for it, and a fierce contraction of loans and discounts necessarily followed. Of this change a distinguished writer said: "The exchanges between different parts of the country were violently disturbed, so that when the first installment of the surplus was delivered to the States the bodily transportation of specie and bank notes from place to place become necessary to an extraordinary degree. Millions upon millions of dollars went on their travels, North and South, East and West, being mere freight for the time being, while the business from which the money was withdrawn gasped for breath in its

struggle with a fearfully stringent money market." The same writer says:

"The first installment of the treasury surplus, amounting to \$9,367,000, due on January 1, 1837, was taken from the deposit banks amid great agony, and transferred to the several States; also the second, about April 1. But before the third fell due the general collapse came. First, the influx of capital from England ceased. The speculation which had prevailed there during the same period, was brought to an end by financial embarrassments, in the summer of 1836. Discounts went up and prices down. Some banks were compelled to wind up, and three large business houses which had been heavily engaged with America failed. English creditors called in their dues. The manufacturing industries, which, carried along by the general whirl, had produced beyond demand, had to reduce their operations, and the price of cotton fell more rapidly than it had risen. In August, 1836, it had been from fifteen to twenty cents a pound; in May, 1837, it was from eight to twelve. The cotton houses in the South went down. Nine-tenths of the merchants of Mobile suspended. New Orleans was in a state of financial anarchy. Tobacco shared the fate of cotton. The whole South was bankrupt. It became painfully apparent that the speculation in public lands had anticipated the possible progress of settlement by many years. The imagined values of great possessions in the West vanished into thin air. The names of the paper towns located in the wilderness sounded like ghastly jests. Fortunes in city lots disappeared over night. The accumulated masses of imported merchandise shrunk more than one-third in their value. Stocks of all kinds dropped with a thump. Manufacturing establishments stopped. Tens of thousands of work-

ing men were thrown on the street. Bankruptcies were announced by scores, by hundreds. Everybody was deeply in debt; there was a terrible scarcity of available assets. The banks, being crippled by the difficulty in collecting their dues, and by the sudden depreciation of the securities they held, could afford very little if any help. In May, 1837, while the preparatory steps for the distribution of the third surplus installment were in progress, the Dry Dock Bank, of New York, one of the deposit banks, failed. Runs on other institutions followed; and on May 10, the New York banks in a body suspended specie payments—the effect of the surplus distribution act and the heavy drafts for specie being given as the principal causes. All the banks throughout the country then adopted the same course. Confusion and distress could not have been more general.”

It is well to say here that the distribution of the fourth installment was never made. Before it fell due, it was apparent there would be no surplus to distribute, owing to the falling off of custom receipts, and receipts from land sales, and the Government was actually forced to issue several millions of treasury notes to meet its current expenses. But the surplus distribution act was not alone responsible for the terrible financial condition. By its arbitrary distribution of its deposits among the State banks the Government started the era of wild speculation, and had fostered it by the repeated injunctions of the Secretary of the Treasury to the deposit banks to loan liberally. It was also directly responsible for the multiplication of banks, and the enormous increase of the paper currency, far in excess of the specie upon which it was based. The administration finally became alarmed at the flood of paper money, it had helped to create, and the President sought means to stop the ex-

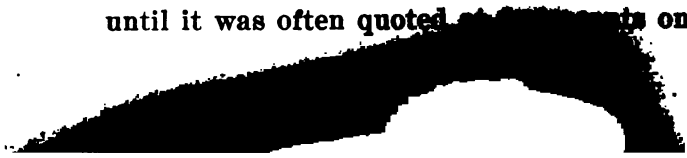
changing of the public lands into "inconvertible paper." He caused a resolution to be introduced into the Senate providing that nothing but specie should be received for public lands. The resolution failed, but President Jackson, immediately upon the adjournment of Congress, in opposition to the advice of a majority of his cabinet, issued his famous specie circular. It was an instruction to the land officers to receive nothing but gold and silver in payment for public land, making an exception in favor of actual settlers. This awakened a storm of protest both from the speculators and the banks. Senator Benton, in speaking of it in the Senate, said that the circular overtook tens of millions of paper money on its way to the land offices. The order created an extraordinary demand for specie. It drew specie from the great centers of commerce where it was needed to uphold the credit of the banks which had issued paper money, and transferred it to the wilderness of the West. This specie circular was the last straw on the laboring back of commerce and the banks, and under it they went down.

Indiana suffered, as did all the other States from this disastrous system of finances. Here internal improvements and individual speculation had gone hand in hand in inflating prices. The State had its share of the inflated currency, but the bills of the State bank were good; they were redeemable in specie, and were so redeemed whenever presented, and they took rank with the best paper money of the country. The State had borrowed large sums in the East to carry on its schemes of canal, turnpike and railroad building. Thus, for awhile, there was an abundance of good money, and the great disbursements on the public works brought forth an era of prosperity, and also of speculation. The speculative mania, and the policy of the contractors in

bringing into Indiana depreciated currency from Michigan and other States, soon drove the good money into hiding. Good money, then, as it ever has been, was "cowardly," and soon took flight before the avalanche of depreciated currency.

By 1839 the State had got into such a financial condition that it could not meet its bills as they fell due, and a remedy was sought for. The money borrowed from the East had been expended, yet the canals, railroads and pikes were not finished, and they were, like the Horse Leech's daughter, constantly crying, "give, give." Money matters in the East had assumed a darkening aspect, and the State could borrow no more on anything like favorable terms. The people of Indiana had speculated, and piled mortgage upon mortgage on their properties, on the faith that the State would complete its great internal improvements, and that a flood of immigration would flow into the State. The State bank was very chary of loaning money, and would only loan small amounts, and that must be well secured. The people could get no money; the State could get none. As a measure of temporary relief the Legislature authorized the issue of State scrip to the amount of a million and a half dollars. This scrip was to bear six per cent. interest and be receivable for taxes.

The scrip was issued in bills of the denomination of five and fifty dollars, and being printed on red paper, soon became known under the name of "Red Dog" currency. With this scrip the State undertook to discharge its most pressing necessities. At first the scrip was well received by the people, but as its volume increased, and its day of redemption began to look further in the future, its value went down, until it was often quoted at ~~as low as~~ ~~one~~ ~~cent~~ on the dollar, and



it seldom reached a higher figure than fifty cents. Most of it was paid out by the State in the central and northern sections, and those sections had much more of it than could be used in paying State taxes. Some speculative individuals took advantage of this, and bought up the scrip in the central and northern sections for forty and fifty cents on the dollar, and took it to the southern Counties, where not much of it was afloat, and sold it to parties, who had taxes to pay, for eighty and eighty-five cents on the dollar, thus netting a snug sum on the right side of their bank account. Others who had faith in the ultimate prosperity of the State purchased and held it, and eventually, before it was all redeemed, it rose to be worth two dollars for one.

The issue of scrip by the State led to a still further inflation of the currency. Merchants, millers, plank road companies, and eventually the contractors on the public works, all went into the business of making paper money. The scrip issued by merchants and millers was generally made payable in merchandise, and much of it was floated on the public. That issued by plank road companies, being based on the receipts for toll, was accepted at par everywhere, and was eventually all redeemed. This scrip was issued in bills as low as twenty-five cents, the highest being for three dollars. It was mostly printed on blue paper, and was soon derisively styled "Blue Pup," to distinguish it from the "Red Dog" of the State.

Under its charter the State bank was a complete monopoly, and no other bank could be established, had there been the money to invest in such an enterprise. The good money had been driven into hiding and only the depreciated currency could be had, and even that grew scarce. Business man after business man went down in the crash,

and as most of the merchants were large purchasers of farm products, they were owing large sums to the farmers, and the failures of the merchants pulled down the farmers, and the court calendars were mainly taken up with mortgage foreclosures. About the only active men were the sheriffs, endeavoring to find buyers for property under foreclosures. But all things must have an end, and after awhile the tide in Indiana once more turned. Public confidence was restored in the East; the State compromised with its creditors, turning over its unfinished public works to private companies; the depreciated currency began to disappear, and with its disappearance, gold, silver, and State bank notes began to come out from their long hiding places. But Indiana had another siege or two to undergo before a perfectly reliable currency was established, and the last of the depreciated notes was to disappear.

So successful was the State bank, and so regular and large were the dividends it was able to declare, that a feeling of hostility, engineered and promoted by politicians, developed. This opposition was very shrewdly nursed, and was first publicly displayed in the constitutional convention of 1850. In that convention a banking clause was introduced providing for a general banking law, and another which forbade the State from being a stockholder in any banking institution. The force of these two provisions was not seen at first, but the general banking clause afterward brought a harvest of woe. The new constitution permitted the establishment of a bank with branches, outside of the general law. Hon. Joseph A. Wright, who was then Governor of the State, was very bitter in his opposition to any banks of issue, and used all his great influence against them. The charter of the State Bank would not expire until 1859,

but as early as 1854 the politicians actively began the work of preventing a renewal of the charter. Governor Wright set himself against any charter. It soon became evident that the hostility to a renewal was so great that the days of the State Bank were numbered, and then the politicians developed their full plan, which was to secure a charter for a new bank under their control. They were not bankers, and did not intend to go into the banking business, but they saw an opening to make money by securing a charter and then selling it out to the real bankers of the State, at a bonus or premium.

At the session of the Legislature in 1853 a free bank law was passed, and in 1855 a charter given to the Bank of the State of Indiana. Governor Wright vetoed both of these bills, but they were again passed, after a good deal of intriguing. The bill to charter the Bank of the State passed in the closing hours of the session of the Senate, and when that body adjourned the Governor, who was present, ascended the platform and made a very bitter speech against the bill, charging that it was passed by corruption and fraud. The speech created the greatest excitement throughout the State. The Governor determined, if possible, to destroy the banks, and on the adjournment of the Legislature brought suit against those to whom the charter had been granted, to prevent the organization of the bank, but the court decided against him, and he appealed to the Supreme Court, which affirmed the decision. At the meeting of the Legislature in 1857 he renewed the fight, and in his message used the following language:

"The means and appliances brought to bear to secure the passage of this charter would, if exposed to the public gaze exhibit the nakedest page of fraud and corruption

that ever disgraced the Legislature of any State. While men of pure and honorable sentiment were led into its support in the belief that the approaching close of the existing bank required them thus early to provide a successor, others supported it upon promise of stock, equivalents in money, or pledges as to the location of certain branches. To make up the constitutional vote in its favor the names of members were recorded on its passage who were at the moment absent, and many miles distant from the capital."

This message caused the appointment of a committee to investigate the matter, and an exhaustive investigation followed. A majority of the committee reported that many dishonorable things had been resorted to by the speculators who engineered the passage of the bill, and recommended that the charter be revoked. The investigation failed, however, in accomplishing anything. When the stock books were opened, a few men were ready to subscribe all the stock, and within a very few hours all was taken. The men who had subscribed the stock were not practical bankers, and after subscribing for the stock were somewhat in the condition of the man who drew the white elephant. They had the charter, and had subscribed for the stock, but had neither the experience nor the actual capital to do a successful banking business, and finally negotiations were opened with the old bank, and an offer was made to purchase the branches of the old bank. This was finally consented to provided Hon. Hugh McCulloch, President of the branch at Fort Wayne, should be made President of the Bank of the State. This was done and the bank entered upon a career of high honor. Two years afterward, a great financial panic swept over the country, induced by the failure of the Ohio Trust Company. This Company was one of

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the great financial institutions of the country, and the conduct of its affairs at the home office in Cincinnati, was of the highest character, but it was wrecked by its New York agent. That officer had entered, without the knowledge of the home institution, upon many schemes of wild speculation, and suddenly, without warning, the great financial institution collapsed.

Confidence was at once destroyed throughout the country, and bank after bank was compelled to close its doors, until every bank in the East, except the Chemical, of New York, suspended, and all in the West except the Bank of the State of Indiana and the Bank of Kentucky, did likewise. The Indiana bank weathered the storm magnificently. It never suspended specie payment for a day, but redeemed its notes as fast as they were offered. The branches of the bank of Kentucky were many of them at remote points from the railroads, and could not be readily reached by the brokers, but those of Indiana were in easy reach and holders of their bills at once rushed for specie. Every private bank in the State except two at Indianapolis and one at Fort Wayne, fell in the panic. Gold was at a premium, and New York exchange was difficult to obtain. The Bank of the State sold exchange on New York, often getting \$125 premium on a draft for \$1,000. The Bank of the State began business in 1857 and continued successfully until the introduction of the National banks. Most of the branches became National banks. In 1865 the Legislature authorized it to wind up its business, and soon it was a thing of the past.

In 1850 the people of the State decided to have a new constitution and delegates were elected. They met at Indianapolis and finished their labors in 1851. The constitution of 1816 had provided that there should not be estab-

lished or incorporated in the State any bank or banking company, or moneyed institution for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to order or bearer, except a State bank and its branches, which might be chartered by the General Assembly. The constitution also provided that in the establishment of such branches, a certain amount of specie must be paid in by the individual stockholders. The convention of 1851 destroyed this provision of the constitution of 1816, and gave authority to the General Assembly to pass a general banking law. Within less than half a dozen years the State was fairly deluged with a flood of practically worthless currency, issued under a general banking law passed by the General Assembly. Ohio, Michigan, and others of the neighboring States had been badly burned by the free banking system, but their experience was as nothing—Indiana Legislators would not be satisfied without experiencing the burning process, so they threw the doors wide open, and banks sprang up everywhere, on the hill tops, in the valleys and among the swamps. Many of them had no banking house or actual place of business. They made no pretensions to being banks of deposit, their only mission being to issue and float notes or bills.

A few men would get together, purchase a few thousand dollars worth of the depreciated bonds of some far away municipality, deposit them with the Auditor of State, and receive authority to enter upon the manufacture of paper money. They would issue bills to an amount two or three — times greater than the value of the securities deposited, put — them in circulation, and then bank, officers and directors — would disappear, leaving the holder of the notes to mourn — their disappearance. The notes only passed at a discount, — and that discount changed almost daily, so that the bill — worth eighty cents to-day might only bring sixty to-morrow —

This money soon received the name of "wildcat," and by that term is still known. Several efforts were made by those who had honestly gone into this new banking scheme to stem the tide and weed out the worthless banks, but nothing of any moment was accomplished.

A thousand or two of cash only was needed to start a bank in those halcyon days of paper currency. All that was needed was enough to pay for engraving the bills. An embryo banker would go to New York with a thousand or two dollars, order an engraver to make a plate and print him \$50,000 in bills. He would then visit a broker and negotiate for \$50,000 worth of the bonds of some State. The next step was to send the printed bills to the State Auditor of Indiana, and instruct the broker to forward to the same place the bonds negotiated for, to be paid for on receipt at the Auditor's office. The Auditor would countersign the new money, pay for the bonds, and a new bank would be set going, and the enterprising banker would receive the interest on the \$50,000 worth of bonds. Thus one man, with \$10,000 in money, bought bonds and established banks until he had in circulation \$600,000 of paper, and was drawing interest on that amount of bonds. When the crash came the floating bills were bought up at a large discount, presented to the Auditor of State and the bonds taken up. History hardly furnishes a parallel.

This flood of money not only operated to encourage a season of the most reckless speculation, which proved a great injury to the State, but the notes of all the banks were soon held at a discount, and thousands of honest people suffered thereby. Every merchant or business man had to provide for himself a periodical known as a "Bank Note Reporter," in which the rates of discount on the bills of the

various banks were daily given. Laboring men and farmers suffered severely through the fluctuations of the value of these notes. They would receive a note at a discount of from five to fifteen per cent. and before they could use it, the discount would be largely increased, or the bank suspended. This flood of paper money also induced merchants, millers and other traders to resort once more to the issue of "shinplasters" and as many of the merchants and others who issued these smaller notes, became bankrupt, through the failure of some of the free banks, many thousands of dollars were lost by the people who had accepted the "shinplasters" as money. These banks failed one after another, and as their notes had driven all of the good currency from the State, the result was very disastrous. Business was checked at once, all building stopped, new enterprises were smothered and old ones crippled. Nobody would take the Free Bank money and as it was all there was in the State, nobody could pay debts. Since the establishment of the National Banks there have been no banks of issue in the State, other than those authorized by the National law, but the State now has a very careful law governing banks of deposit. Under this law five or more persons may form themselves into a corporation as a bank of discount and deposit with certain rights and powers. The bank must have a capital stock of at least \$25,000 which must be divided into shares of \$100 each. No person can be a director in such bank unless he is the owner of at least five shares of the stock. The capital stock may be increased or reduced at the pleasure of the bank, upon giving a certain specified notice. The stockholders are liable for all the debts and contracts of the bank. Such banks are authorized to own and hold real estate under certain restrictions. The President and Directors

re required to file an annual sworn statement of the financial condition of the bank and cause the same to be printed in some newspaper. The Auditor of State has the authority, through some designated person, to examine into the condition and affairs of all such banks as often as he may deem it necessary.

Savings banks may also be organized. There cannot be less than seven nor more than twenty-one stockholders and they must have been residents of the County, where they reside at the time of organizing the bank, for at least five years, and must be owners of unincumbered real estate in the County worth at least \$5,000. The law provides how the money deposited in such savings banks shall be invested. In addition to these banks the State has authorized the organization of "Building and Loan Associations" and hundreds of thousands of dollars have been invested therein. In 1893 the Legislature enacted a law establishing Trust companies. These companies do not do a general banking business, but they receive deposits, make investments, act as administrators of estates and execute bonds.

In 1896 the capital invested in National Banks in the State amounted to about \$15,000,000 with \$61,500,000 resources. In the State Banks the amount of capital invested was \$5,186,000 with \$14,710,000 resources.

As a fitting close to a chapter on the financial history of the State it is well to give a brief sketch of some of the distinguished bankers of Indiana, who have taken high rank among the financiers of the Nation.

J. F. D. LANIER.

Few men, if any, have reflected more honor upon Indiana than Mr. J. F. D. Lanier, though not a native of the State.

Through a long life he was regarded as one of the ablest financiers of the country. On two different occasions, at the solicitation of the Government, he visited the moneyed centers of Europe to induce the capitalists of the old world to invest in our Government securities, and both times met with great success. In the dark days of the Union, when gold had mounted up until it was almost unpurchasable with our currency; when it looked as if the South might eventually wear out the courage and endurance of the North, and the Government was struggling everywhere to secure the means whereby the enormous expenses of prosecuting the war might be met, bonds were offered on the market. They found a ready sale in this country, but foreign capitalists were afraid of them. In 1865, as the war was coming rapidly to a close, Mr. Lanier was about to visit Europe. The Secretary of the Treasury requested him to act on behalf of the Government, in setting forth to the moneyed men of England and the continent, the debt of the United States, and her resources. On his arrival at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, he was invited to address a meeting of bankers and capitalists. He did so, setting forth the great resources of the United States in such a strong and convincing light that there was no longer any hesitancy on their part in investing in our bonds. His address was published in English and German by the papers and widely circulated. For the ability thus displayed, and the success attending his efforts, Mr. Lanier received the thanks of the Government.

Three years later he was again requested by the Secretary of the Treasury to speak for the Government abroad, in aid of an effort to float a five per cent. bond, and equal success attended his efforts. His first trip to Europe was in behalf of the State of Indiana. In 1847 the State

Indiana was practically bankrupt. She had burdened herself with a large debt for the purpose of carrying out a great scheme of internal improvements, and for several years had defaulted the interest upon her bonds. By this course her credit had been destroyed and the prosperity of the State seriously checked. Most of the bonds were held in Europe, and the holders were clamorous for the payment of the interest, and the State was out of funds. The Legislature passed an act for the settlement of the bonds on a new basis. Mr. Lanier was selected to proceed to Europe and lay the proposition before the bondholders. He was supplied with the new bonds, or certificates of State stock, with which to take up the old bonds, and was given the power to transfer the Wabash and Erie canal, and the lands belonging to the State, to the Trustees selected for that purpose. The certificates of State stock were all duly signed, but the amounts and names of parties were left blank to be filled by Mr. Lanier. His mission was successful, and the load of debt was lifted in such a way that Indiana at once entered upon an era of prosperity. In 1863, when the Legislature failed to make an appropriation to meet the interest upon those bonds, and the Auditor and Treasurer of State held they could pay out no money on that account without an appropriation, Mr. Lanier, in connection with his banking partner, stepped forward and advanced several hundred thousand dollars, thereby saving the credit of the State once more.

Mr. Lanier was born in Washington, North Carolina, November 22, 1800. His ancestors were Huguenots who fled from France on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. By intermarriage they became connected with the Washington family. One ancestor married a sister of John Washington,

the first of the family to come to America, while another married a sister of Mary the mother of George. Not long after Mr. Lanier's birth his father moved to Kentucky, and then to Ohio. His grandfather had fought with General Wayne on the Maumee, and his father, during the war of 1812, commanded at Fort Wayne. In later years Mr. Lanier himself became very closely identified with the prosperity of this same Fort Wayne. While at Eaton young Lanier attended for a short time the village school, and also clerked in a store. A little later he attended for eighteen months an academy at Newport, Kentucky. In 1817 his father made another move, this time to Madison, Indiana. Here the elder Lanier was unsuccessful in business and died insolvent, but his son, afterward, from his own accumulations, paid all the debts in full.

At Madison Mr. Lanier entered upon the study of law, finally graduating at Transylvania Law School, in Kentucky. He soon commanded a good practice, and his income from that was supplemented by receiving, in 1824, the appointment of Assistant Clerk of the House of Representatives, a position he held for three years, when he was made Principal Clerk. His salary was \$3.50 per day.

In 1833, when the State Bank was organized, he became interested in that institution, being the largest individual stockholder. He was made president of the Madison branch. In 1837, when the Government called for the transfer of a large per cent. of the Government funds, then held by the banks, to Washington, Mr. Lanier was the selected agent of the State Bank to take \$80,000 in gold to Washington. He went by steamer to Wheeling, and from there across the mountains alone in a stage coach chartered for the purpose. In 1849 he went to New York and formed a

partnership with Richard H. Winslow, for the purpose of engaging extensively in railroad building, and to do a general banking business. At that time there were only about six hundred miles of railroads in the West, and they were all poorly constructed and equipped. They began offering bonds of railroads on the New York market, the first bonds of that character ever offered being those of the Madison & Indianapolis railroad. They frequently negotiated a million dollars of bonds daily. In six years, from 1849 to 1854, they negotiated the bonds to build more than ten thousand miles of road. In 1859 the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne & Chicago road, in whose building the firm of Winslow & Lanier had been largely instrumental, went down in the financial storm which swept over the country. Mr. Lanier at once undertook the work of reorganizing the road, and carried it through so successfully that it soon became one of the great roads of the country. Mr. Lanier never lost his interest in Indiana, and his banking house has been for years the fiscal agent of the State, as well as of many of the counties and cities.

HUGH McCULLOCH.

Near the top of the long roll of able financiers produced by this country stands the name of Hugh McCulloch, of Indiana. He earned the right to have his name linked with those of Hamilton and Gallatin. He not only conducted great banking enterprises successfully, and with distinguished honor to himself and the country, but stands as the only man America has produced who was three times called to the head of the Treasury Department of the Government, and by as many different Presidents. Hugh McCulloch

was born in Kennebunk, Maine, December 7, 1808. He received his education in the schools of that place, and at Bowdoin College. He did not graduate, however, being compelled to leave college by his failing health. He taught school for awhile, and then studied law. In 1833 he concluded to try for his fortune in the growing West. When he began his travels he had no definite notion of where he would make his new home, but concluded to leave that to circumstances. He stopped, for a few days, at Cincinnati, and there met a citizen of Indiana, who gave him such glowing accounts of the future prospects of the Hoosier State that he determined to cast his lot in with those who were then building up the young and vigorous commonwealth. The State was then about to enter upon its great undertaking of building railroads and canals.

He chose Madison as his home. It was then the largest and wealthiest town in the State, having a population full of enterprise and energy. He did not remain there very long, however, concluding to try his fortunes in the northern part of the State. After studying carefully the prospects of each of the embryo cities of Northern Indiana, he made a choice of Fort Wayne. When he first settled at that place he designed entering upon the practice of law, but the State Bank of Indiana had but recently been chartered, and a branch was to be established at Fort Wayne, and with that institution he became identified. From that time until 1865 he was intimately connected with the banking interests of the State. He became president of the Fort Wayne branch of the State Bank, and as such had to visit Indianapolis very frequently. In those days the journey had to be made on horseback, and was considered a journey, indeed.

When the charter of the State Bank of Indiana was

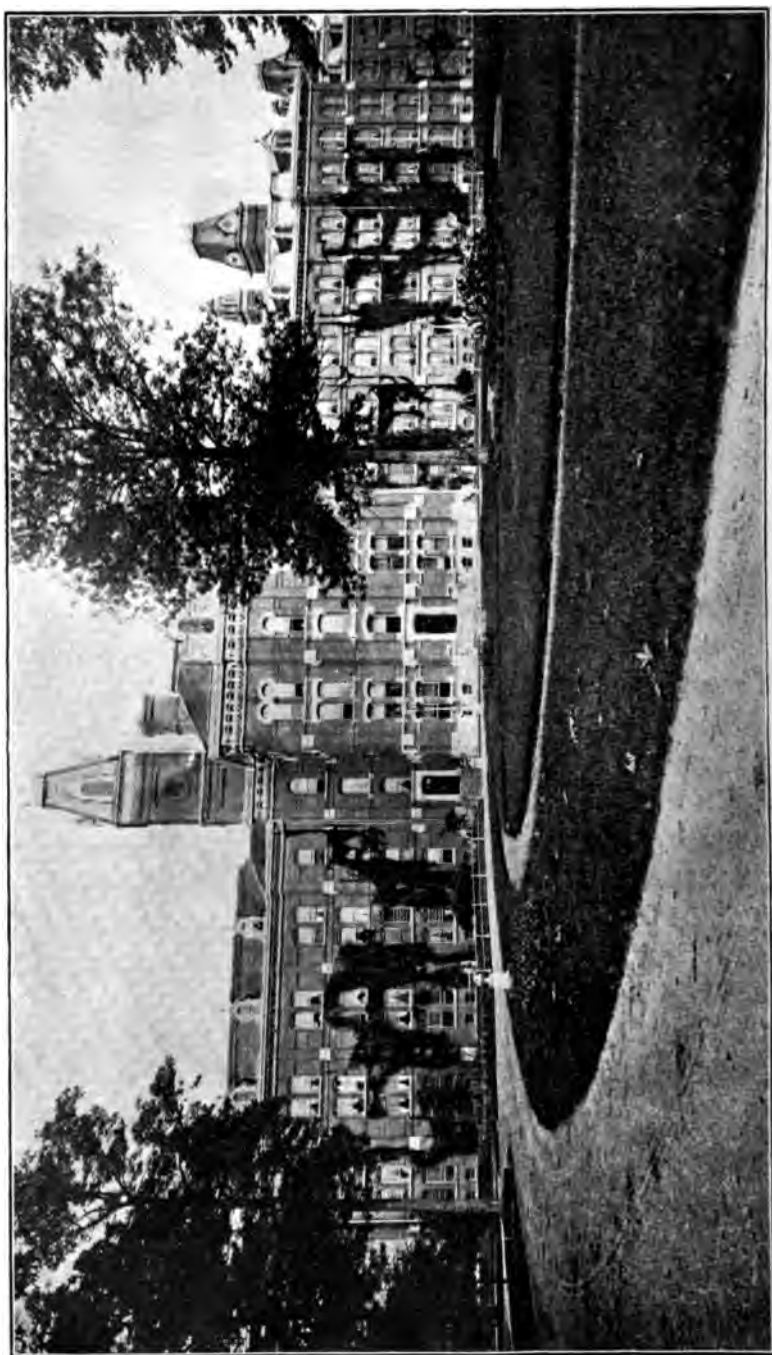
about to expire, and a charter had been obtained for the Bank of the State of Indiana, and its incorporators proposed to purchase the branches of the old State bank, they found that they could make the purchase only upon the condition that Mr. McCulloch should be made the president of the Bank of the State. This was finally agreed to, and under his management the new bank became a worthy successor of the old one. It soon became known as one of the soundest financial institutions in the country. In 1862, when Congress was considering the bill to create the national banks, Mr. McCulloch visited Washington, to oppose the passage of the act. He was naturally very proud of the great moneyed institution of which he was the head, and did not take kindly to any law which would interfere with it. He knew that his bank was perfectly solvent, and able to meet all its obligations, notwithstanding the stringency produced by the war, which was then raging in all its fury. The bill became a law, however, early in the next March.

About this time Mr. McCulloch was again in Washington. He was making an Eastern trip with his wife, and visited Washington on his way. While there, one day, he passed through the Treasury Building. He was not acquainted with Secretary Chase, but as he was passing his door, thought he would leave him his card. Drawing one from his pocket he handed it to the attendant, and walked on. That evening he and his wife left Washington. They visited Baltimore, Philadelphia and New York, and finally reached Plattsburgh. There Mr. McCulloch found some letters and telegrams awaiting him which had been following him around. To his utter surprise, one of them was an urgent request from Secretary Chase to return at once to Washington and accept the office of Comptroller of the Cur-

rency, a new office created by the national banking law. By this time his views in regard to such a law had undergone a marked change. He was still wedded to his bank, and believed it could successfully weather any storm that might arise, but he saw the necessity of the Government providing the people with some safe currency to take the place of the gold and silver, and to meet the demands, not only of the Nation, but of commerce.

To accept the offered position meant a large pecuniary loss to him, as he would have to sever his connection with the bank of which he was the head. After some hesitation, he concluded to accept the offer and give to the Government his wide experience. He took the place and worked out the details of getting the new system into successful operation. His name at the head of the new system at once made it friends among the moneyed men of the Nation, for he was known to all of them. He served in the office until March 1865, when, on the resignation of William Pitt Fessenden President Lincoln placed him at the head of the Treasury Department. Mr. Lincoln was assassinated a month later and President Johnson retained Mr. McCulloch in his cabinet.

He served as Secretary of the Treasury until March, 1868. He then engaged in banking in New York and London. In 1884, on the retirement of Mr. Gresham from the Treasury Department, President Arthur called Mr. McCulloch again to its head, notwithstanding he had then reached the advanced age of seventy-six years. Mr. McCulloch wrote good deal on financial questions, and his writings were always regarded as authority.



CENTRAL HOSPITAL FOR INMATES, INDIANAPOLIS.

CHAPTER XXI.

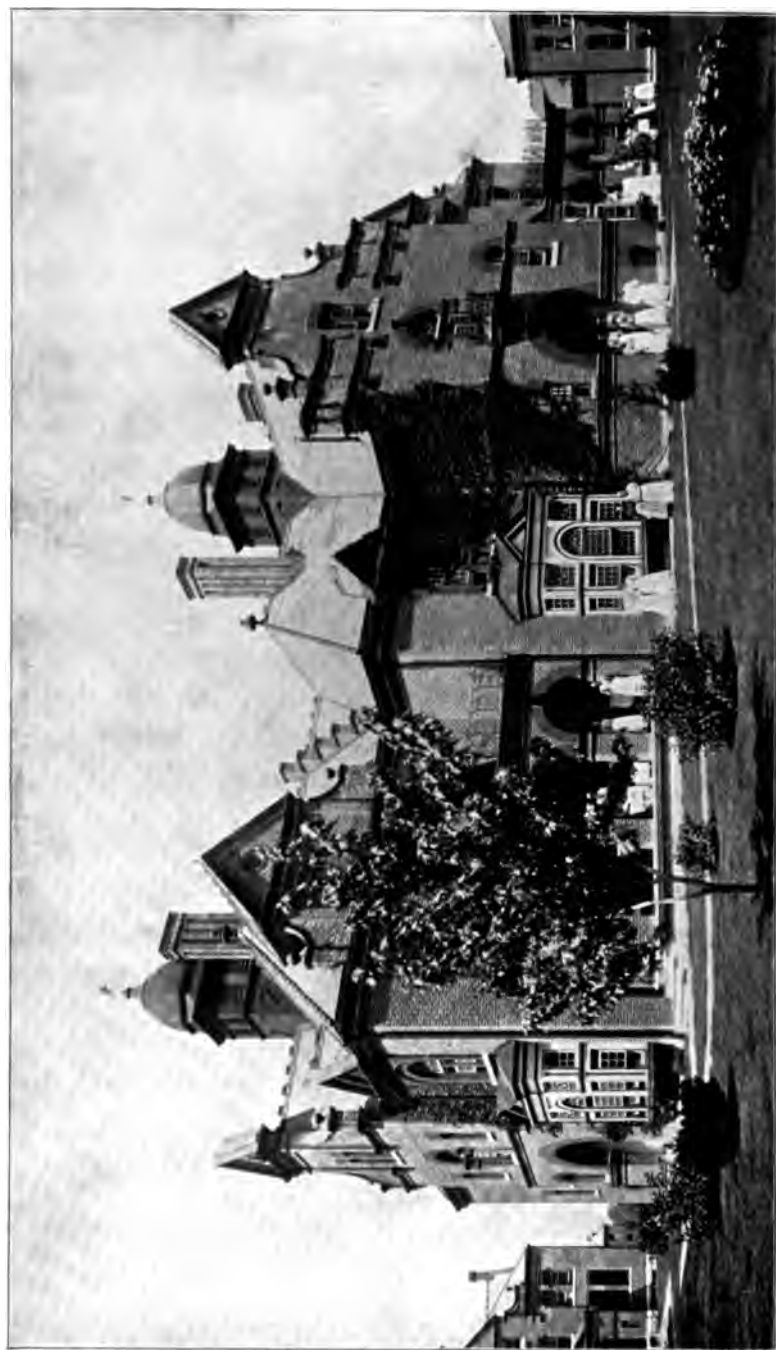
BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS.

The people of Indiana early felt the importance of providing liberally for the unfortunate of the State, and the first constitution contained the following provision regulating the duty of the General Assembly: "To provide one or more farms to be an asylum for those persons, who, by reason of age, infirmity, or other misfortunes, may have a claim upon the aid and beneficence of society; on such principles, that such persons may therein find employment and every reasonable comfort, and lose, by their usefulness, the degrading sense of dependence." Under this provision the aged and infirm, as well as the unfortunate, were to be cared for, and in such a way as to lose the feeling that they were being supported by charity. The framers of the constitution of 1850 saw fit to leave out the provision for the aged and infirm, but would have done well to have embodied it perpetually in the organic law. Of course, in 1816 when the constitution was first adopted, and the population of Indiana numbered but a few thousands, there were but few, if any, unfortunates to be cared for by the State. It is probable that at that time there was not in the State a deaf and dumb person, or half a dozen who were blind or insane, but the framers of the constitution looked forward to a time when there would be many of all those classes, and

they did not stop at giving the Legislature the right to make provision for their care, but they made it a solemn duty to do so. It was not for some years, however, that the first steps in the direction of carrying out this mandate were taken.

For several years the only place for the insane of the State was found in the county pauper houses, and the number of such unfortunates was rapidly growing. The attention of the Legislature had been called to this subject by the press and by charitable persons, but it was not until 1839 that much impression could be made, and then the agitation began to take root. The State was poor, and that was used by the members of the Legislature as an excuse for not carrying out the mandate of the constitution. In 1842, the Legislature took the first step. It was not much of a step, but it was a beginning. It ordered the Governor to gather such information as to the care and treatment of the insane as he could from some of the older States. He was a large-hearted, philanthropic man, and he set about his work judiciously, and by the time the Legislature met in session again, he had his report ready for its consideration. At the same session, Dr. John Evans, a former resident of Indiana, but then of Chicago, was invited to address the General Assembly on the subject. He had made a study of mental diseases and was an enthusiast on the subject. The report of the Governor and the address of Dr. Evans speedily brought forth fruit, and Indiana entered upon a system of caring for the unfortunate that has made her name stand at the head of the list in that direction.

Early in February, 1843, the Governor was instructed by the Legislature to procure plans and suggestions as to buildings from the superintendents of such institutions in



TRIPLE COTTAGE, EASTERN INSANE HOSPITAL—RICHMOND.

the other States, to be submitted to the General Assembly at its next session. This he did, and the Legislature determined to erect a hospital at Indianapolis, and to provide the funds for that purpose a special tax was levied. In 1845 a commission was appointed to select a site for the proposed buildings, which was done, the site chosen being an elevated tract of land west of Indianapolis. In 1846 the Commissioners were ordered to begin the erection of the buildings. Work was begun at once, and 1847 witnessed the completion of the first building, at a cost of \$75,000. From time to time additions to this building have been erected, until now several acres of ground are covered with the various buildings of this central hospital for the insane. The number of insane rapidly increased and the county houses were again filling up with them. They could not be treated in such places, nor could they be well cared for, and by 1875, notwithstanding large additions had been made to the hospital, it was still entirely too small for the needs of the State, and it was found that newer and larger buildings would have to be erected.

By this time a feeling had begun to develop that it was not good for the patients for so many of them to be kept together, and a strong effort was made to secure the erection of the proposed new buildings in some other city, but the Legislature determined to add to the hospital already established, and several hundred thousand dollars were appropriated, and within the next two years a magnificent new structure was erected with all the modern improvements and conveniences. This building was assigned specially for the female patients. It is admitted to be one of the best buildings for its purpose in the United States. All these additions did not keep pace with the rapidly growing

insane population, and it was felt, also, that especial provisions should be made for the incurably insane. Before that, when a patient was declared to be incurable the hospital authorities could no longer care for him, and he had to be returned to his friends, or to the County authorities. The result was that almost every poor asylum of the State had one or more of these incurables confined therein. The hospital at Indianapolis was large enough to accommodate fifteen hundred patients, but the statistics disclosed that more than that number were being confined in the County houses, or in private homes.

In 1881 the matter was taken up in earnest and the Legislature resolved to erect three new hospitals, located at different points in the State. Evansville, Logansport and Richmond were selected as the sites of the new institutions.

When the tax was levied to provide funds for the erection of an insane hospital, a small tax was also levied to procure the means for the erection of an institution for the education of the deaf and dumb. William Willard, a deaf mute, had opened in 1843, at Indianapolis, a private school for the education of the deaf and dumb, and started with sixteen scholars. It was not right that such a great enterprise should be left to private citizens to carry out, and as it was enjoined by the constitution that the Legislature should do this work, that body, in 1844, adopted the school of Mr. Willard, and carried it on in a rented building until a suitable building could be erected. In 1846 thirty acres of land, just east of Indianapolis, were purchased and the erection of a building arranged for. A hundred acres were shortly added to the original purchase. The building was not begun until 1849 and was completed in 1850, at a cost of \$30,000. It has also been several times enlarged. A com-

petent corps of teachers is employed and the institution ranks as one of the best in the country.

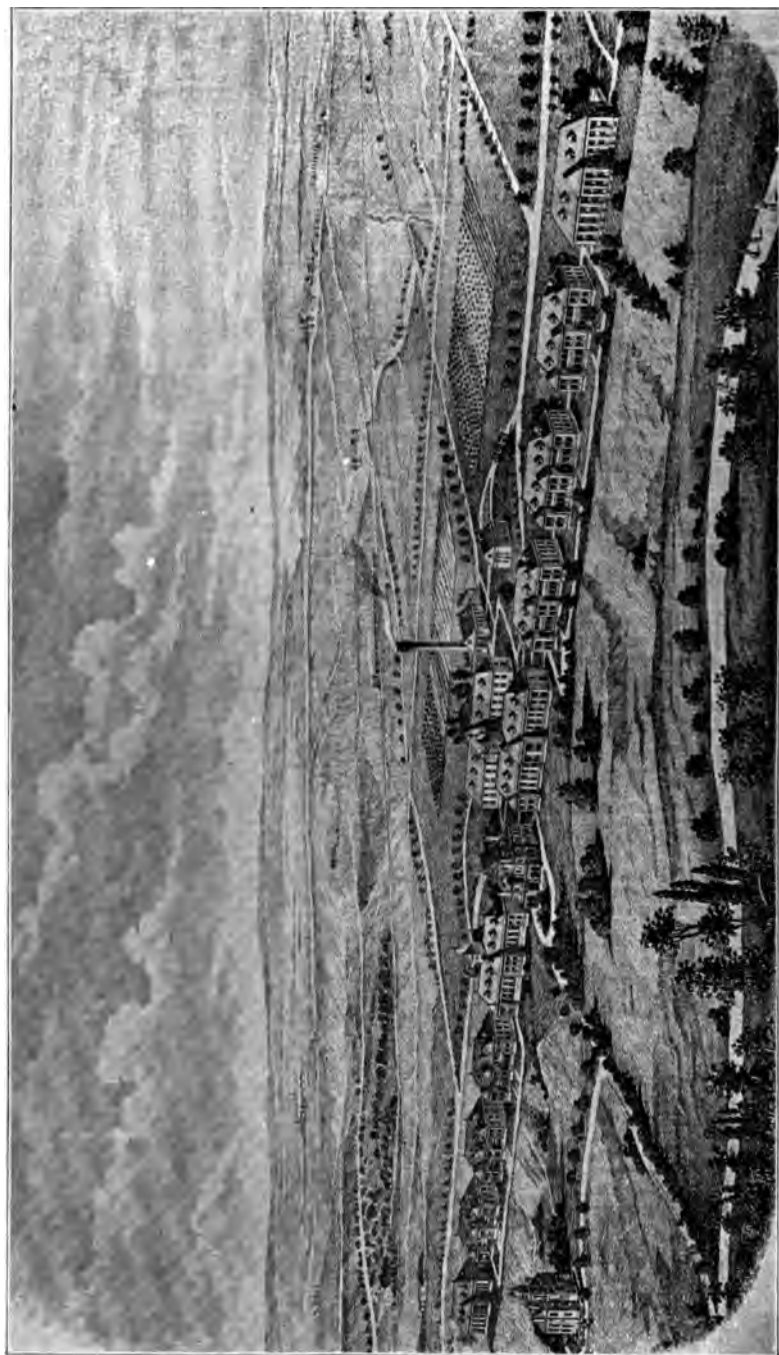
During the winter of 1844-5 some of the benevolent citizens of Indianapolis induced Mr. William H. Churchman, a teacher of the blind, to visit the city, during the session of the Legislature, and give an exhibition or two with his class. The exhibitions were successful in every way, and the Legislature at once levied a tax for the purpose of raising a fund to erect a suitable building for the use of the blind of the State. A commission was appointed to select a site and to make temporary provision for the school. The school was opened in a rented building, and it was not until 1848 that the erection of a State building was begun. It was completed in 1850, and the school has flourished ever since.

For many years the State was somewhat unfortunate with its great benevolent enterprises, through the influence of politics. Even in their early history a number of scandals, of one kind and another, injured the fair name of the State. At one time during the administration of Governor Willard, owing to the failure of the Legislature to make the necessary appropriations, the institutions were closed, and for two years, the blind, the deaf mutes and the insane were sent back to their various Counties. The Legislature of 1863 again failed to make appropriations for their support, but Governor Morton borrowed the money to keep them in operation. After the war the political influences grew stronger than before in the government of the institutions, and abuses became more rife. This was especially the case with the Hospital for the Insane. Repeated efforts were made to lift the institutions out of political control, but all failed. At one time the appointing power for the Board of Trustees would be exercised by the Legislature, and then it would be

given to the Governor, but when the Governor would be of one party faith, and the Legislature of another, the General Assembly would legislate out of office the appointees of the Governor and elect members of their own party. In 1887 an investigation of the abuses at the Insane Hospital, by a committee of the Legislature, awakened such widespread attention among the people, that a general demand arose for a change in the system of management, but it was not until 1895 that it was finally perfected.

Now the Board of Trustees must be made up of members of the dominant political parties, and the members are appointed by the Governor. This does not correct all the abuses, but it has minimized them. In the treatment of the insane great advancement has been made. The old methods of restraint and punishments have been done away with. The strait-jacket and the "crib," and like instruments of torture, have been banished, and kindness and diversion for the mind have taken their place. The number of insane is constantly increasing, and the cost of maintaining the hospitals for their treatment grows with each year, but the burdens thus placed upon the people are cheerfully borne. Those declared to be incurable are now cared for at the Logan sport Hospital.

But these are not all the benevolences of the State. Soon after the close of the war, the gratitude of the people to those who had given their lives in the service of the country led the Legislature to make provision for the care and education of the orphans of soldiers, and near Knightstown, Henry County, a beautiful tract of land was purchased and suitable buildings erected. From time to time additional appropriations have been made for the enlargement of buildings, and a liberal allowance is made for the m



NORTHERN HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE AT LOGANSPORT.

tenance of the school. The children are given the groundwork of a good English education, and at the same time taught some useful employment.

Some years ago the question of educating feeble-minded children began to be agitated. The experiment had been tried in some of the States with a varying degree of success, and Indiana took up the matter, attaching the school to that of the soldiers' orphans at Knightstown. This did not work satisfactorily, and caused great dissatisfaction among the people. In the winter of 1886 the buildings at Knightstown were destroyed by fire, and in considering the question of rebuilding them, the opportunity came for the division of the two schools. Fort Wayne had made a liberal offer for the establishment of the feeble-minded school in that city, and in 1887 the Legislature appropriated a large sum and very large and handsome buildings have been erected. The school is operated on a system calculated to develop and strengthen the mind, and while study is one of its features, to lighten the study and to develop the mental faculties, amusements and work of various kinds are furnished.

CHAPTER XXII.

PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

The founders of the State Government, in framing the constitution, declared that "The penal code shall be founded on the principle of reformation, and not of vindictive justice." It was a wise provision, and in the main the Legislature in enacting laws has carried it out, but the one place where reformation could be worked, for many years was neglected—the prisons. In framing the penal laws the Legislature, if anything has been too lax, and has provided so many loop holes that the ends of justice are too easily thwarted, but in the management of the prisons reformation was long lost sight of. Soon after the inauguration of the State Government the erection of a prison within which to confine offenders against the penal laws, was found absolutely necessary, and such an institution was located at Jeffersonville, in Clark County. It was opened for the reception of prisoners in 1822, and for many years it was about the worst managed and conducted prison on the continent, a disgrace to the State and an outrage on humanity. It was conducted under the old barbarous lease system, that is still in vogue in some of the Southern States. The prisoners were treated as brutes, starved, driven, flogged, inhumanely punished in a hundred ways. The lessee paid a stipulated price to the State and worked the prisoners as he pleased,

treating them as he or his brutal foremen or overseers saw fit, and there was no redress. There was no voice to be lifted up in behalf of the prisoners; they were not permitted to tell of the outrages perpetrated upon them, and they remained helpless in the hands of inhuman keepers. For many years it was the only prison in the State, and young and old, males and females, the first offender and the hardened criminal, were sent there and huddled together, until the prison, instead of being a place for the reformation of the vicious became nothing but a moral pest house, a school for the graduation of criminals. This system of lesseeship continued until 1856, when the outcry against it became so great that the State took the prison under its own control.

While it was governed by lessees the prisoners were engaged in work outside of the prison walls, and so outrageous was their conduct at times that the citizens of Jeffersonville frequently threatened to resort to force to compel the keeping of the prisoners within the precincts of the penitentiary. The same system of outdoor work was followed for awhile under the wardens, but at last patience was worn threadbare, and the citizens of Jeffersonville rebelled, and at one time with arms drove the prisoners inside the gates. In 1847 a new prison was erected, on the present site. So far as humanity was concerned the change from lessees to wardens was little or no improvement. The same barbarous punishments were maintained. During the years that both male and female prisoners were confined in the prison at Jeffersonville, the greatest abuses prevailed. The horrors of those days, if put in print, would still awaken the greatest indignation. Young girls and young boys, sent to prison for some slight offense, were hardened and brutalized long before the expiration of their terms, and were released so de-

proved that after-reformation was impossible. The female prisoners were compelled to yield to the bestial lusts of the officers and guards. From almost the very inception of the Warden plan of government politicians began to look upon the prison as a great political machine, and it was governed accordingly, and, as a consequence, was always a hot-bed of political scandals. One legislative investigation after another was made, and each time great abuses were found to exist, or the partisan bias of the investigating committees converted the prison into a sort of a paradise. Peculation by the officers in control were frequently laid bare, while cruelty and inhumanity in the government of the convicts was established beyond the power of controverting. Yet, in face of all the facts thus disclosed, the Legislature year after year clung tenaciously to the idea of party control, and Directors and Wardens were named as a reward for party services.

At last the horrors and abuses became so great that the humanity of the State revolted, and a demand was made for a separation of the prisons. The Legislature was induced to take some steps for the reformation of vicious boys, and to remove from the penitentiary those of tender years, who had been sent there for minor offenses. By this time, too, the contract system of letting out the labor of the prisoners had been adopted, and this worked some amelioration of the condition of the convicts, but it was still far away from the basic idea of reformation. In 1867 the Legislature provided for the purchase of a farm and the erection of a Reform School for boys. This idea had been growing in the minds of the people for some years. The press and the pulpit had advocated it, but the demands made upon the people by the war of the rebellion had prevented any def-

inite action until 1867. The people of the State had hardly returned to peaceful avocations before the question was again taken up by the press and the pulpit, and Governor Conrad Baker, a man of large heart, urged it upon the Legislature, as he did also the matter of providing a separate prison for women. At that time the State was prosperous, and notwithstanding the heavy load of debt which had been placed on the people by the burdens of the war, the Legislature actively took hold of the matter.

The principle to underly the school was laid broad and deep, reformation, and not punishment, being the great object. A home was to be provided, where manual labor, good training, and a primary education were to go hand in hand with the work of reformation. This institution was located near the pretty little village of Plainfield, in Hendricks County, and work was at once begun on the necessary buildings. The first building was completed and made ready for the reception of inmates by the 1st of January, 1868. Several boys who were confined in the prison at Jeffersonville were at once transferred to the new institution.

Luckily for it, and for the good name of the State, this great reform institution has been kept measurably free from party control. It is operated on the family plan, with a competent corps of teachers and attendants. Boys under the age of sixteen years, who are incorrigible or vicious, beyond control, may be sent to this House of Refuge. The complaint may be made by the parent, or guardian, or by any citizen. Township Trustees, by showing to the proper court that a boy under the age of sixteen is destitute of a home, or of means of livelihood, and is in danger of becoming immoral or vicious, may have such boy committed to the House of Refuge. When a boy under the age of sixteen is

charged before the grand jury with a crime, the jury can, instead of returning an indictment against him, make the proper showing before the Judge and have the boy committed to the House. All commitments must be until the boy reaches the age of twenty-one years. While there he must receive a fair English education and be taught some useful vocation. The school has been a success from the very beginning. It is under the charge of a Superintendent.

In 1869 an appropriation was made by the General Assembly for the erection of a prison for women, connected with which should be a Reformatory for Girls. This institution is located at Indianapolis, and ever since its erection has been wholly under the management of women, and against its management no breath of scandal has ever been heard. To the penal part of the institution must be sent all females convicted of a violation of the State laws. While under the same management, the prison and reformatory are entirely separated. To the reformatory may be sent incorrigible and vicious girls under the age of fifteen, and girls under that age guilty of crime. All commitments must be until the girl is of the age of eighteen years. Like the boys at Plainfield the girls are instructed in the rudiments of an English education, and taught many kinds of employment. When girls show evidence of reformation, every effort is made by the management to procure them good homes. The institution is under the charge of a Superintendent.

By 1860 the penitentiary at Jeffersonville had become too small for the increasing number of convicts, and it being deemed better to have more prisons than to have so many convicts in one institution, another penitentiary was located at Michigan City, Laporte County. As has been

said, partisan control long kept back anything like adequate reform in the management of the prisons. The first step taken by the Legislature was enacting a law providing for a credit for good conduct, in the reduction of the terms of the prisoners. By this law a prisoner is entitled to a reduction of one day for each month of good behavior for the first year, two days per month for the second, and adding one day per month each year during the term for which he was sentenced. This law has resulted in great good, in the conduct of the prisoners, as it is a definite reward for good conduct. One idea seemed to be always prevalent with legislators, and that was to make the work of the prisoners maintain the prisons and turn a surplus into the general treasury. This, taken with the political or party good to be obtained through the control of the prisons, long kept back anything like a sound and general reform in prison management.

The abuses of the system, however, began to attract the attention of the people more and more, and, although the Legislature would not let go its political control, some reforms were introduced. In 1896 the Warden of the Southern Prison introduced what he called the "graded system." By this system he divided the prisoners off into three or four distinct classes, and the clothing was made to designate the class to which the prisoner belonged. The lowest class was composed of those prisoners who persistently violated the rules of the prison, and received no good conduct certificate. From that the prisoner could work his way up to the highest or most privileged class, by good conduct. Privileges and favors were shown to each class. This was another inducement to good conduct. By his own efforts a prisoner could almost entirely rid himself of the hated convict dress, that

for so many years has been the distinguishing mark of the convict. This system worked so well, that the Legislature of 1897 adopted it and ordered its introduction into all the prisons of the State.

By this time the basic principle of reformation was again taking hold on the public mind, and the Legislature of 1897 took a great step in advance, enacting several laws, all tending toward assisting in the work of reforming the vicious. The prisons were again divided, that at Jeffersonville being designated a Reformatory, and that at Michigan City as the penitentiary. To the penitentiary were to be sent all life convicts, and all convicts over the age of thirty years, it being considered that persons over that age, convicted of crime, are not likely to be reformed. Those under the age of thirty were to be sent to the Reformatory at Jeffersonville, where every effort should be put forth for their permanent reformation and restoration to citizenship. The indeterminate sentence system was also adopted. Under the old laws the juries determined the guilt and fixed the punishment. This system proved unsatisfactory for many reasons. Juries are always uncertain, and very frequently, owing to the artful pleading of the attorneys, a prisoner, deserving the full limit of the law, was let off with the lightest possible sentence, while others deserving leniency were punished to the full extent. These cases of injustice would embitter the one and embolden the other, while at the same time a general contempt for the jury system was engendered.

Under the new law, the juries find only as to the guilt or innocence, and the term of imprisonment rests with the Board of Government of the prisons, his good conduct or other evidences of reformation being the guiding hand. If

he gives no evidence of reformation he is kept in prison to the extreme limit of the law. The same Legislature abolished the contract system for prison labor, and provided that thereafter the labor of the convicts should be confined to such work as may be needed in the prisons or other State institutions. The Boards of Control for the prison and the reformatory are appointed by the Governor.

Closely identified with the prisons, especially in the work of reforming their management, is the State Board of Charities. This Board was established by a law enacted in 1889. Its members are appointed by the Governor, and serve without pay. The act defines their duties as follows: "They shall investigate the whole system of public charities and correctional institutions of the State, examine into the condition and management thereof, especially of prisons, jails, infirmaries, public hospitals and asylums; and the officers in charge of all such institutions shall furnish to the Board, on their request, such information and statistics as they may require; and, to secure accuracy, uniformity and completeness in such statistics, the Board may prescribe such forms of report and registration as they may deem essential; and all plans for new jails and infirmaries shall, before the adoption of the same by the County authorities, be submitted to said Board for suggestion and criticism. The Board, in its discretion may at any time make an investigation, by the whole Board or a committee of its members, of the management of any penal, reformatory, or charitable institution of the State." This Board has been very active and has had much to do with working out reforms in all the various State institutions.

CHAPTER XXIII.

TRANSPORTATION.

When the French made their first settlement in Indiana, it was difficult to get supplies to them. They had to come from Canada. The French trappers and hunters who first entered this territory, managed to live, as did the Indians, and, therefore, required no base of supplies, but soldiers at military posts could not live in that way, and regular supplies were needed. The voyagers from Canada, sailing around the shores of Lake Erie found the mouth of the Maumee River, and entering it paddled their light canoes up that stream until they came to the junction of the two streams now known as the St. Joseph and the St. Mary. When once there it was not long before they learned from the Indians that by a short portage they could reach Little River and then the Wau-bish, as it was called by the Indians, and by floating down that stream could finally enter the "Great River." They made the portage and floating down, established posts at Ouiatenon and Vincennes. The French, called the river Ouabach, and for a long time that was the name given to the lower Ohio by some explorers, and on many of the old maps the Ouabach is designated as the main stream, and only that part of the Ohio above the mouth of the Wabash was called by the former name. From that time for many years all the supplies for Vincennes and

Ouïatenon were brought by the way of Lake Erie, the Maumee and Wabash Rivers. Some years later, when a settlement had been made at New Orleans, part of the supplies were brought up the Mississippi in pirogues, and then by the way of the Ohio and Wabash to Vincennes. When the Americans began making settlements in Kentucky they obtained their supplies overland from Virginia or the Carolinas by pack horses, or from Pittsburg by flat-bottomed boats down the Ohio. When, by the capture of Vincennes, by George Rogers Clark, this territory fell under the jurisdiction of the American Colonies, the few inhabitants obtained their supplies by the way of the Ohio, down which they were brought to the falls by boats and then transported overland to Vincennes by pack horses. A few boats, however, were floated to the mouth of the Ohio and then poled up the Wabash.

All the early settlements were along either the Ohio or the Wabash, and the people depended upon those two streams for their communication with the outer world. They had nothing to sell but peltries, and about the only supplies they needed were iron, salt and ammunition for their rifles. For everything else they depended upon their own efforts. For many years the communication between the frontiers in Indiana and the older colonies was very precarious. Hostile bands of Indians watched the river, and attacks upon the flatboats were of frequent occurrence. The undergrowth along the banks of the river furnished ample means for concealment for the wily Indians, until the current would drive some boat close into the land, when its unsuspecting crew would receive a volley from a foe they could not see. As the settlements drifted back from the Ohio or Wabash they kept pretty close to some of the streams flow-

ing into one or the other of those rivers, and when the time came that they had something to sell their only way to get that surplus to market was by floating out flatboats. There were no roads into the interior of the territory. From Vincennes to the Falls of the Ohio was a well marked Indian or buffalo trail, and that had been used by the pack horses. It was the only semblance to a road in the whole State. In fact, when the city of Indianapolis was laid out, and designated as the future capital of the State, there were no roads, and one of the first things the Legislature did, after accepting the report of the Commissioners empowered to select a site for a capital, was to appropriate money for the building of roads to the new city. One was to connect the new capital with the Ohio River at Lawrenceburg, another with Madison and another with Jeffersonville, and roads were also ordered north and west.

About this time keel boats made their appearance on the rivers. These boats were poled up the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers, and then up some of the interior streams. Two such boats made their appearance at the site of Indianapolis. Such boats would carry several tons of supplies, but it was slow work pushing them up from New Orleans. It required about one hundred days to make the journey. In 1817, one of these barges arrived at Lawrenceburg in ninety-seven days from New Orleans, and it was hailed as a remarkably quick passage. It was regarded as being worthy of a record. The people of Ohio began to feel the need of a market for their surplus products several years before such a want was known to those in Indiana. As early as 1801 they began the work of finding a way to market, and in that year a sea-going vessel was built at Marietta. It was a vessel of one hundred tons burden, and they named it the "St.

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Clair." It arrived at Cincinnati on April 27th of that year and caused the most intense excitement, all the people crowding to see it. It was loaded with the produce of the country, and was bound for the West Indies. In 1811 Robert Fulton and Robert Livingston caused to be built at Pittsburg a steamboat for navigating the Ohio River. It made its first voyage in October of that year. This vessel, by the noise it made and the smoke it threw off, created great terror along the banks of the river. Its passage down to the Mississippi occurred about the time of the great earthquake at New Madrid, Missouri, and many people were convinced that it had caused the convulsions of the earth.

• For many years, however, the good people of Indiana depended mainly upon flat boats for shipping their products to market. Boats would be built in the summer, loaded with wheat, corn, and such other marketable products as were to be had, and then wait for a freshet, to carry them out into some of the streams leading into the Ohio. People living immediately on the Ohio did not have to depend so much on this method of transportation, but up to the breaking out of the war Indiana sent a large number of flatboats annually down the river. Before that time, however, the railroads had materially cut into the work of transportation, and the people of the State had begun to find another market than New Orleans. From the first introduction, of steamboats, until about 1860, they were a source of great revenue to their owners, and many of the fortunes of Louisville, Cincinnati, Madison, New Albany and Evansville were derived from that source.

At first the boats were small and poorly equipped, but as the country settled up and trade grew more brisk, the boats increased in size and equipments until some of them were

palatial in their appointments. Steamboat building was carried on to a great extent. The journey that required one hundred days, or more, for a barge to make, was often accomplished in less than seven by these steamers, and they carried very large cargoes.

The first roads constructed were simply highways, with the trees cut down, leaving the stumps. There was no attempt made at grading, and when it was possible the roads were opened along the base of the hills, to avoid heavy grades. The bottoms caught all the rain, and as a consequence during some seasons the roads were almost impassable, because of the mud. Straight lines were never sought for, and the roads wound in and out, sometimes to such an extent as to lengthen the distance between two points very materially. As an evidence of how slow traveling was over those early roads it may be cited that when the archives of the State were removed from Corydon to Indianapolis, the best the wagons could do was to make about a dozen miles a day. As the country developed and the demand for supplies increased, some enterprising citizens would establish a line of wagons to some point on the Ohio River. Those wagons had to be of the very strongest make to withstand the hardships of the journey. The beds were wide and deep, and they were covered with white canvas stretched over bows. When night would overtake them the driver would hunt a camping place somewhere near water, feed his horses from the supplies carried along, and then sleep in his wagon, the canvas covering protecting the cargo from the weather, as well as furnishing a shelter for the driver during the night. For a number of years such caravans furnished about the only means of transportation for freight, to the interior of the State. For passengers and the mails, stage

lines were established. These were great, clumsy vehicles, swung on leathern springs, which gave to them a peculiar rocking motion. To these four and sometimes six horses would be hitched. In the rainy seasons the passengers were frequently required to walk, carrying rails to help the stage out of the mudholes found at short intervals. A traveler on one of these early coaches thus described his journey:

"I left Brookville, on Wednesday noon, expecting to reach Greencastle by Friday night. The first seventeen miles were traveled in a two horse coach. It had been raining for two weeks. There were no turnpikes then in Indiana. We were six hours in reaching Bulltown. From there to Indianapolis, the stage, which had been running three times a week had been taken off on account of the bad roads, and a two horse wagon without cover or springs had been substituted. In this, before daylight we started, hoping to make Indianapolis before the stage for the west should leave at 10 o'clock at night. Night overtook us about ten miles from Indianapolis. About 8 o'clock our wagon broke down, and we were still six miles from Indianapolis. There were three of us—the driver, an agent of the stage line, and myself. The only baggage was my trunk and the mail pouch. It was determined the driver should ride one horse, carrying my trunk before him, the stage agent should ride the other and carry the mail pouch before him, and myself behind him. By this conveyance I made my first entrance into Indianapolis, about 11 o'clock at night. The stage for the west had been gone an hour or more, and I had to wait until the next night."

For some years the nearest grist mill to Indianapolis was sixty miles away, and all grain had to be conveyed that dis-

tance to be made into flour or meal, over such roads as have just been described. In fact, up to the introduction of railroads much of the grain raised in the central and western parts of the State was hauled to Lawrenceburg, and there exchanged for salt, iron, dyestuffs, and other necessities, and the average price of wheat, in those days, when thus transported and delivered, was only fifty cents a bushel, while the articles given in exchange sold at four or five times the prices demanded at the present time. Under all these adverse circumstances, it is not to be wondered at that the farmers greedily took hold of and advocated any measure which promised relief, and when the matter of "internal improvements," which meant the building of turnpikes, canals and railroads was under discussion, they eagerly supported such measures. Hon. Oliver H. Smith, who at one time represented the State in the United States Senate, in his delightful book of reminiscences, gives what he declares was a speech made in the State Legislature, by a farmer member, advocating an appropriation for the Wabash and Erie canal, in which he makes the earnest legislator to say: "Mr. Speaker—The wants of the Wabash Valley am great, but its resources for salt am slim." The language was homely, and not used altogether according to the rules laid down by Lindlay Murray, but it told the whole story. The Wabash Valley was capable of producing grain enough for an empire, but had no way to get that grain to market or to receive the supplies needed, and until that way was provided its growth would be retarded. The people of Indiana then did not look forward to manufacturing industries, but expected the State would be wholly devoted to agriculture and as the products of the farm were bulky and heavy, unless a market could be provided settlers in any great number would not come.

An apparently brighter day was dawning. Congress had taken hold of the matter of internal improvements, and had begun the construction of a wide wagon road, which was to be graded and piked from Cumberland, Maryland, to the Mississippi River at St. Louis. It also donated to Indiana a large amount of public lands to aid in the construction of a canal from Lake Erie to the head of navigation on the Wabash, if that point could be found. The State accepted the gift and began work on the canal. Other canals were projected, and the building of turnpikes was also undertaken. For awhile the canals, as far as they were completed, did a very large business, but before they had gotten fairly under-way, railroads came, and their mission was practically ended. The old, lumbering stage coaches, the Conestoga wagons and the slow-moving canal packets, gave way to the iron horse and its long train of rapidly moving cars. The State expended millions of dollars on the works projected, with but little benefit to the people.

In 1831 the mania for railroad building seized upon the people, and a number of companies were formed. All the projected railroads were to center at Indianapolis, and charters were asked from the State. In two days the Legislature granted six such charters. One was to run from Indianapolis to Lawrenceburg, another to Madison, still another to New Albany, a fourth to Corydon and one was to strike for the northwest part of the State, having Lafayette for a terminus. New Albany and Corydon are both in the southern part of the State, and only fifteen or twenty miles apart, so it will be seen that at least two of these roads would have paralleled each other the entire distance, and both through a meagerly settled territory. Surveys were begun on all of these roads, and some of the work was done.

When, in 1836, the State took up in earnest the work of aiding internal improvements, it subscribed for a large part of the stock of the Madison and Indianapolis road. Madison, at that time was the emporium of the State. It was the largest town and the wealthiest. It had been experiencing an era of prosperity from the introduction of steamboats on the Ohio River. It was the great gateway into the State, and Indianapolis had been dependent upon it for its supplies for a number of years. One of the first roads ordered opened by the Legislature was from Indianapolis to Madison. It was the nearest point on the Ohio river to the capital. The railroad was completed by the State from Madison to Vernon, in Jennings County, a distance of twenty miles, in 1839, and was operated by the State until 1843. Then it was sold for a small amount, and the work of completing it according to the original charter was slowly pushed forward. It finally reached Indianapolis in October, 1847, and for several years was one of the best money making roads ever constructed in the country. It was the first railroad in the State and was the pioneer of the magnificent system that has since made Indiana a network of iron rails. The competition of other lines, and bad management on the part of its operators, finally drove the company into practical bankruptcy, and the road became a part of the Pennsylvania system. The marked feature of the road is the "deep cut" at Madison. The grade climbing the hill from the Ohio River is said to be the steepest railroad grade in the country. All trains are taken up and down the grade by an engine built especially for the work. Once begun the work of railroad building went rapidly forward, until it was checked to some extent by the civil war. Perhaps, but one of all the roads constructed, ever permanently paid the men who built it, and

that was the Indianapolis and Terre Haute. All the others have had a more or less chequered career, passing from the hands of one company to another, at frequent intervals. Indiana is in the way from the East to the West. The great lakes in the north force all railroads seeking an outlet in the west to pass across the borders of Indiana, and that class of lines have always been the best paying, but the State now has a number of north and south lines.

After the war the Legislature enacted a law permitting Counties, Townships and cities to vote aid to railroads, the money to be raised by taxation. This law proved to be of doubtful benefit. It is true that some roads which have been of great benefit to the sections of the State through which they run, could not, and would not have been built without this aid, but it is equally true that many roads which were not needed were started, and some of them completed, where they were not needed, and where there was not even the most distant prospect of there ever being enough business to pay for their operation. The operating of railroads was followed a few years later by Express Companies and they in turn by Fast Freight Lines, and these now practically carry all the freight shipped over any of the railroads, the railroad companies simply acting as the carriers.

The railroad lines in Indiana now operate in the State 6,300 miles of main track, and 2,200 miles of side tracks. It is hard for the mind to grasp the immense tonnage annually carried over the many roads which cross Indiana from one side to the other, or span the State from north to south, and to believe that all this has grown up in a single lifetime is still harder. It is only fifty years since the first railroad was completed in the State, and but little more since the first rail was laid, yet the railroads of Indiana have made and

developed an empire, with resources greater than ever the empire of Rome controlled. Without them, or some other equally rapid mode of communication and transportation, Indiana would have remained to this day but sparsely settled, almost without manufactures, and depending alone on agriculture. The railroads, with other advantageous helps have built up busy cities, which in turn have demanded more rapid transit for their people to and from their daily business, and street cars in due time came. Thirty-five years ago there was not a city in Indiana having a street railroad. In 1863 one or two short lines were established in Indianapolis. The cars were small, drawn by mules, and their trips irregular. Now, there is hardly a town, making any pretensions to city airs, without its electric lines traversing its streets, bringing the outlying portions of the town to the very doors of the business center. At the present time, there are but two Counties in the State without railroad communication with the rest of the world.

Closely following the railroads came the electric telegraph. The first telegraphic line put up in the State was in 1848. It was to an Indiana member of Congress much of the credit is due for the introduction of the telegraph into the country. When Prof. Morse had developed his idea of sending messages by wire from one point to another, he petitioned Congress for aid in demonstrating the reality as well as usefulness of his discovery. He was poor and without the means to erect a line for the purpose of testing his invention, and asked Congress for a small appropriation. It was debated pro and con, not only among the members of Congress, but by the people generally. By most it was looked upon as only the dream of a visionary, and was greatly derided by many of the papers. Suppose message

could be sent, they said, of what practical utility will it be? Who will want to use such means of correspondence? The petition of Prof. Morse was submitted to a committee of Congress. David Wallace, the member from the Indianapolis district, was one of that committee. The committee discussed the matter until Prof. Morse almost lost faith. At last the day came for the committee to make its report. The question was put whether the committee should recommend the appropriation or not. The name of Mr. Wallace was the last on the roll. When his name was called the vote was a tie, and it was left for him to decide the question. He voted for the appropriation. Morse had won, but it cost Mr. Wallace his seat in Congress, for at the next election the people of his district said they wanted no man in Congress who would waste the people's money on any such foolish experiments. Between him and his competitor that was the only issue in the campaign. It was not long, however, until Mr. Wallace looked upon that vote as the proudest thing in his Congressional career. In 1896 in the State of Indiana alone 37,000 miles of telegraphic wire were in constant use. The Western Union Company alone maintains in the State 35,428 miles of wire. It operates 715 main and eighty-nine branch offices. In addition it reaches 125 towns by telephone.

CHAPTER XXIV.

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture in Indiana dates from the earliest French settlements in 1735. Those early settlers found the Indians rudely cultivating little patches of ground, here and there, around their villages, principally growing maize and melons. Their efforts were of the rudest kind, and the work lazily performed by the squaws. The French settlers at Post Vincennes cared but little more for agriculture than did their savage neighbors. Like them they depended mainly on the rivers and forests for their table supplies, but the Indians having granted them land in the immediate neighborhood of the Post, they cultivated a few acres, at first only enough to supply their own limited wants. Wheat and corn were the principal products, but oats, hemp, and potatoes were also cultivated. Those early Frenchmen did one good thing, however. They remembered the fruits and the vines of their fatherland, and brought with them the seeds and cuttings and planted the first orchards and vineyards. Up to the organization of the Territorial Government of Indiana, in 1800, there were no American settlers in the Territory, with the exception of a few at Vincennes, and others in the neighborhood of the Falls of the Ohio, but immigration soon set in after the establishment of the Territorial government. Then all southern Indiana was an unbroken

wilderness of heavily timbered forests. The first settlers planted their homes close along the banks of the Ohio, and endeavored to cultivate the little valleys and the hillsides. It was an uninviting field, the main promise of which was hard and unremitting toil for many years to clear off the gigantic forest trees, and grub out the stumps and roots, before the farm would begin to be profitable, but the pioneers were a sturdy race, not afraid of hard work.

The soil was virgin and rich, and readily yielded to the demands of the cultivator. As the Indian titles to the land were extinguished the settlers pushed farther into the interior, but there they found the same unbroken forests of white and burr oak, walnut, beach, maple, poplar and other trees. Such dense timber they had never met with before, and the gigantic poplars, lifting their heads a hundred and more feet into the air, were a revelation to them. Then, too, the forests were intertwined by almost impenetrable jungles of undergrowth. The settlers were mainly poor, bringing with them nothing but a few domestic animals, a handful of household furniture, and a few dollars in money to make the first payment on the land purchased from the government. The farms thus purchased were small, seldom exceeding one hundred and sixty acres, and more frequently reaching only eighty acres. The woods abounded in wild game and the streams with fish, and thus the supply of meats was abundant and readily obtained. The first thing to do was to select their farm, then to clear off a little space for a humble cabin, and lastly to begin the work of felling the trees and preparing for the crop to be planted between the trees. The implements for farm husbandry, in the early days, were of the rudest sort. Among the first plows used in the State was the "bull" plow. The stock or wood work of

these plows was generally made by the farmers themselves. The handles were the butts of bushes, the crooked roots forming the hand-hold. The beams were hewn by hand from small, tough oaks. The mold-boards were made from blocks of wood about twenty inches square and three inches thick. The inner, or straight side of the mold-board was fastened to the handle, and the outer surface was hewn out in an irregular troughing shape. The wing of the share extended high up the mold-board. A loop of iron made the point. It took a good team, a strong man, good ground and twelve hours hard work to plow an acre and a half with such a plow.

To plow the hill sides, the farmer plowed so as to throw the furrow down the hill, and to do this the plow had to be dragged back to the starting point, after every furrow. Contrast that slow and laborious method with the revolving plow now in use. The harrow was V shaped, with wooden teeth, the whole made by the farmer himself. The wheat had to be harvested with a sickle, with which an expert cutter would get over about three-quarters of an acre a day. About 1840 an improved plow, known as the "Peacock," taking its name from its inventor, was introduced. This created a revolution in the work of the farm, enabling the farmer to plow about twice the amount of land in a day.

The methods of planting and sowing were also of the primitive kind. The corn ground was "laid off" both ways, the wife, or the boy or girl, would drop the corn at the intersections, while the farmer would follow and cover with a hoe. Wheat, oats, and barley were sown "broadcast," the sower carrying his grain in a sack swung around his neck. Help was almost impossible to be obtained, and all the work devolved upon the farmer and his family. When there

did come a surplus of population, and men were seeking farm work, about the only time they could find employment was when the harvest was ready to be gathered. Then the bands of sicklers came into play. Usually from five to ten persons would form these bands of reapers; one man following another across the field, cutting about half an acre each a day. These bands would begin their work in the southern part of the State where the grain ripened first, and reap fields northward until they would reach the verge of civilized life in the Territory. The best reapers would receive thirty-seven and a half cents per day, or a bushel of wheat. It was not until 1840 that the grain cradle came into general use in the State. With that new implement a good cradler and two binders could harvest and shock about two acres per day.

Previous to 1840 the grain was threshed either with a flail or tramped out with horses. Two men could flail out and winnow about twelve bushels per day, and two men and a boy, with horses could tramp out and winnow about twenty bushels a day. The winnowing, or separating the grain from the chaff, was done by the hand sieve. The mixed chaff and grain was poured from above on the bed sheet, while two men would so vibrate the sheet as to create a current of air, which would blow the chaff to one side, while the heavier grain would fall in a pile at their feet. The first threshing machine was introduced into the southern part of the State in 1839. With four horses and eight or nine men two hundred bushels of wheat could be threshed in a day. The wheat so threshed had to be cleaned afterward. It required three men two days to clean and sack what would be threshed in one. This was thought to be a wonderful improvement over the old way, and it was, but

when compared with the steam threshers and separators of the present day, it was very primitive.

The scythe was the only implement for mowing the meadows. A good, strong man could only cut from one to two acres in a day, working from sun up until dark. The hand rake was then used to rake up the hay preparatory to stacking it, with the wooden fork. With a mowing machine a man now cuts ten acres a day, and with a steel-tooth horse rake another easily prepares it for the stack, and a steel fork operated by a man and a horse stacks it. The first hay press in use was made of a long wooden screw about a foot in diameter, with ten or twelve feet of thread to the screw. A stick of timber twenty-six inches square, with a hole through the center served as a nut, with threads cut to receive the wooden screw. The nut was framed into the top of two great posts, twenty-six by eighteen inches in size, and twenty-one feet long, standing four and a half feet apart. Six of these posts were planted in the ground. A space eleven feet high was left to receive the hay to be pressed. To the top of the great wooden screw was fastened a sweep, thirty feet long, bent downward. To this horses were hitched. To complete a bale, two feet square and four feet long, the horses operating the screw would have to travel about a mile and half.

Previous to the introduction of improved implements about 1840, it took one farm hand twenty-four days to plow, seed and harvest ten acres of wheat, and forty-four days to plow, plant, cultivate and harvest ten acres of corn. At first only enough grain was grown for the use of the family and for stock feeding, as there was no market for it. The corn was ground or pounded into a coarse meal, in a mortar, with a large pestle, or made into hominy. To these succeeded

hand mills. As the farmer would get more land cleared, he would cultivate more corn and feed hogs, they transporting themselves to market. The breed was rough, and the hogs when fattened for market would only weigh about two hundred pounds gross, and prior to 1843 the price never reached two cents per pound gross. Cincinnati and Lawrenceburg were the two great markets for hogs, and in the winter to those two places the drovers would wend their slow way, driving several hundred hogs. During the summer and fall months the hogs were permitted to run at large in the forests, eating the great quantities of mast with which the forests abounded. Later they would be gathered up and fed for a few weeks on corn, thus making their meat marketable. Running at large they became very wild, and often it would be the work of days and weeks to gather them together for fattening.

As farming stretched farther into the interior, the difficulty of getting to market increased. Roads were few, and of the worst character. What surplus was raised had to find a market at Cincinnati, Louisville or New Orleans. To reach New Orleans, flat boats were used, and the farms near the interior streams were more profitable, for the farmers would combine, build one or more flat boats, load them with grain or baled hay, and then float them out to the Ohio and then on down to New Orleans. Wheat and corn were frequently hauled to these water ways from a distance of twenty-five and a hundred miles, and when thus delivered, the price obtained prior to 1840, was from thirty to fifty cents a bushel for wheat, and from ten to twelve cents per bushel for corn.

At few cattle were raised, only enough to furnish milk

and butter for the family, and a yoke or two for farm work. A few sheep were also kept, of mongrel breeds, to supply wool for clothing. The wool was carded by hand, made into yarn on the hand spinning wheel, and woven into jeans and linsey on hand looms, every farm house being supplied with these necessary articles to the pioneer. Milk cows were sold for eight dollars, and the best of them only produced three pounds of butter a week. Horses were only raised for farm purposes, and the breed was very indifferent. After some years water mills began to appear here and there along the streams, but they were only calculated to grind for home consumption, and the farmer, when he wanted flour or meal would fill a sack with wheat or corn, and throwing it over his horse go several miles to mill, where, perhaps, he would have to wait half a day for his "turn." The first flour mill of any consequence erected in the State, was built in Lawrenceburg, in 1839. To this mill wheat was transported over the bad roads from all of central Indiana. The trips would require from eight to ten days, and from seven hundred to nine hundred pounds were a good load for two horses or a yoke of cattle. Once at the mill the farmer would sell his wheat and take his pay in iron, salt, dye stuffs, and other necessities. The wheat when made into flour would be shipped to New Orleans, by boat.

But a better day was coming for the Indiana farmer. New and better facilities for reaching markets were to be opened up. The first of these was the Wabash and Erie canal which was opened in 1841. This waterway connected with the lakes, and reached far into the interior of the State, thus affording ready and cheap transportation to the markets of the East, and even with Europe. This gave a great impetus to the agricultural interests of the State, and

the area of farming was widened. Hogs were no longer the best paying product to be raised on the farm. Wheat, oats and other cereals began to be profitable, and the work of the farmer was greatly diversified. Railroad building was soon to take its place in the work of furnishing markets for the surplus of the farmer. This brought a rotation of crops. Railroads were followed by manufacturing establishments, and a greater home demand. The increased foreign and home demand, brought with it a better breed of live stock and better varieties of grain. The farm acreage increased rapidly, and the new and improved implements and farm machinery made it possible for the agriculturist to keep up with the increased demand for his products.

Before the introduction of railroads but few cattle were kept on the farms, save for milk and butter, and those were of very indifferent breeds. The beef cattle weighed from seven hundred to nine hundred pounds, and were counted as being extra fine if they were brought to weigh one thousand pounds at five years old. The price was about one and a half cents per pound. With the breed of hogs then in the State it required two years to mature them for market, and then they seldom weighed more than two hundred pounds. As early as 1825 a better breed of cattle had been introduced, but they were looked upon as being too fancy for the average farmer. The first shorthorn cattle of the pure breeds introduced into the State was in 1825, by Edward Talbot, a progressive farmer of Jefferson County. Three years later, John Owens, of Monroe County, also imported some of the same breed. For several years their introduction was looked upon with suspicion by the farmers of the State, but in 1835, at the Marion County fair, a display was made of these cattle and they began to attract attention.

Thirty years after their introduction there were only thirty-five breeders of shorthorns in the State, and they were confined to nineteen of the ninety-two Counties, and only one hundred and thirty-seven head were recorded. From this date the breeding of shorthorns rapidly increased, as it was found that in half the time it took to mature one of the old breed and make it weigh from 700 to 900 pounds, a shorthorn could be brought to weigh from 1,400 to 1,600 pounds. There are now in the State about twelve hundred breeders of shorthorns, with herds numbering about fifteen thousand cattle. The introduction of other improved breeds have been of much later date, but now the State can show great herds of Herefords, Polled Angus, Red Polls and Galloways, for beef cattle, and Jerseys, Holstein-Friesians and Devons for the dairy. They are now found in every part of the State, while the old common breeds have almost entirely disappeared.

For many years the farmers clung to their old "razor-back," mast-fed hogs, but they, too, have given way before the march of improvement, and now none but the best breeds are grown. Poland Chinas, Berkshires, and Chester Whites are seen everywhere, and to fatten one of these for market, and make it weigh from five hundred to eight hundred pounds, takes no more corn than it formerly did to get two hundred pounds of meat on a "razor-back." The same great improvement in sheep raising has been made. Not only pure breeds are now seen, and the number has been increasing from year to year. In 1850 the total value of the live stock industry in the State was \$22,478,555. In 1890 the value was \$114,409,810. Forty years had made wonderful changes.

Drainage, as well as improved methods of cultivation



SOUTHERN HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE AT EVANSVILLE.

and greater demands, has had much to do with the great increase of the production of the farms of the State. Indiana is nearly a level plane, from the Ohio River to the lakes, thus left by the glacial period. The rivers and other water courses had cut their way through the plane and the bordering hills. The general trend of the plane is to the southwest. The elevation above the sea level is about one thousand feet in the northern and eastern section, and at the mouth of the Wabash three hundred and thirteen feet. In the northeastern part of the State is a small section where the flow of the water is toward the north. This section is drained by the Maumee, which flows northeastwardly into Lake Erie, and the St. Joseph, which flows northwardly into Lake Michigan. All the other streams, of any importance, find their way to the Ohio, and then to the Gulf of Mexico. This watershed toward the southwest has had a tendency to lower by several hundred feet the general surface of what was originally nearly a level plane. The marsh table lands of the Kankakee are one hundred and fifty feet above the Wabash, to the south, nearly one hundred feet higher than Lake Michigan to the north, and seven hundred feet above sea level. The State is bisected in every direction by many smaller streams, all furnishing good natural drainage. In the northern part of the State are a number of lakes, and up to within the last few years, much of the land was marshy, and generally regarded as worthless for agricultural purposes. Drainage has made those marshes the garden spot of the State. Much of this great work has been aided by wise drainage laws, enacted by the Legislature. The drainage has not been confined to wet lands, but has been extended to every section of the State where the soil is underlaid with clay. Wherever complete tile drainage has been

accomplished the yield of the land has been doubled. Many thousand miles of tiles have been laid within the last few years, and the work is still going on.

Indiana abounds in soil variety. The summit lands lying at the top of the divides or watersheds, are underlaid with a heavy clay. Usually the vegetable accumulation forming the top soil is not deep, but with proper cultivation and drainage, very productive in the growth of meadows and cereals. The native soils of the beech and oak flats are light, and were rapidly exhausted, but under drainage and fertilization have again become very productive, and grow as fine grass and grain as are raised in the State. The summit, wet, muck soils, were once shunned as worthless, but having been reclaimed by drainage are now held to be among the best. The undulating uplands, either timbered or prairie are very much alike. They are both sandy loams, decayed vegetation being much greater in the prairie than in the timbered. These lands have a loamy clay subsoil, which holds moisture, and readily yield large crops. The soil contains about sixty per cent. of fine sand, which prevents baking. They produce the cereals well and make the very best pasture lands, blue grass flourishing especially. These soils are also very durable, the subsoil abounding with the elements of mineral fertility, to a depth of several feet. The valleys along the water courses have alluvial soils of great richness. Great crops of corn are annually grown upon them, yielding seventy and eighty bushels per acre. These valley lands are generally skirted with what is called second bottom lands, with a rich sandy loam upon a clay sub-soil. Wheat, oats, timothy and indeed almost all crops grow here with the greatest abundance.

The richest soils of the State, however, are found on the

prairies which lie in the northern and western sections of the State. They are underlaid by a heavy clay subsoil. The soils are rich in vegetable matter, and contain a very considerable per cent. of fine sand. The prairies are well adapted to wheat, corn, oats and all varieties of grass. Along the Ohio River the soil has proved especially productive for fruit culture, and much of the land in the southern tier of counties is now given up to peach growing. Taken all in all, there are none of the great central States with a greater variety of soils, or soils that are more uniformly productive of good crops.

In 1897 it was developed that Indiana had another source of great agricultural wealth. In the northern part of the State, along the Kankakee River, are several hundred thousand acres of land, supposed to be practically worthless owing to the marshy condition. These lands are low and subject to overflow from the river, and in rainy seasons are covered with water. In dry seasons they make excellent grazing ground for cattle, but at other times are useless. For years the question of reclaiming this wet land had been discussed, but the owners of the adjoining land were deterred from undertaking the work, by the prevailing belief that when reclaimed the land would not be found to be worth the cost.

In the spring of 1897 it was determined to experiment with this land in the cultivation of the sugar beet. The result was most gratifying, the beets produced on the land showing a much larger per centage of sugar qualities than those raised in France or Germany. It will not be many years before the 500,000 acres will be in a high state of cultivation.

CHAPTER XXV.

NATURAL WEALTH.

It has fallen to the lot of but few States, in fact, of but few nations, to be blessed with greater sources of wealth than Nature dealt out to Indiana. Geographically so situated that all, or nearly all, of the great traffic between the older and richer East and the newer but energetic and progressive West and Northwest, has to pass across her territory, she has rapidly become a network of railroads, and the sound of the moving trains is never absent from the air. These railroads have built up towns, villages and cities, furnished remunerative employment for thousands of her people, poured wealth in a lavish and never-tiring stream into the State. None of her sister States immediately surrounding, have been blessed with so many sources of wealth and prosperity, and if she has lagged behind any of them in the race of progress, it has been the fault of her own citizens; a lack of energy or enterprise upon their part, and not because nature failed her in any degree. In the race for population and wealth she has fallen behind Illinois, a younger State, and a State lacking in many of the great sources of wealth so abundantly possessed by Indiana. For agricultural purposes the most of the soil in Indiana is as good as the best in Illinois. For the successful cultivation of fruit the Indiana soil and climate far surpasses that of

Illinois, and fully equals that of Ohio. It is true that for navigation Illinois has the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, while Indiana only has the latter, but the Ohio places her as near the Gulf and the great cities of the South, as the Mississippi does Illinois. Indiana's only lake harbor, at Michigan City, was as good, naturally, as that at Chicago, but the superior energy, activity and foresight of the people of Chicago has gathered from the treasury of the Nation millions for the improvement of the Chicago harbor, while Indiana has been content with a few beggarly thousands.

Illinois has been a persistent and active petitioner at the doors of Congress while Indiana has remained in the background. Whenever an opportunity has been offered to advertise Illinois, and show to the world what she had to offer, it has been eagerly seized and the money appropriated, while Indiana has held her purse strings with a tight grip, and doled out pennies where dollars should have been freely given. When the war came the people of Indiana demonstrated that they could be liberal, and that their money was at the service of the Union and its defenders, but when the question has been to develop the resources of the State and make them known to the world penuriousness and not enlightened liberality has governed. To-day Ohio and other States are getting rich off the natural resources of wealth in Indiana, while the people of the State are only getting the drippings. It was left to the capitalists of Ohio and Illinois to come in and develop the great stores of petroleum. All that the people of Indiana get from the thousands of barrels taken daily from the State is the little royalty paid to the owners of the lands, while the great bulk of the product goes to enrich the capitalists of other States.

It is as true with States as with individuals, that oppor-

tunities once missed seldom return. Indiana has missed many opportunities owing to the carelessness of those who were directing her public affairs; through the negligence or sluggishness of her citizens, or by a lack of intelligent foresight on their part. General Washington was one of the first to realize the future possibilities of the Ohio Valley. During one of the darkest periods of the Revolutionary war, when it looked as if the struggle for independence was doomed to failure, one of the leading patriots asked Washington what the people would do, should it happen that England should finally overwhelm the colonies. Pointing toward the mountains he said the people would emigrate west of the mountains and there establish and maintain a free nation. When peace finally came, he persistently urged upon Congress the duty of inducing the various colonies who laid claim to the territory west of the mountains to surrender those claims to the General Government, in order that a large portion of it might be given to the soldiers who had fought for the colonies. But more than a quarter of a century before that, a British officer had forecasted what might be. In one of his letters to the British Government, General Gage, the Commander-in-chief of the British forces in this country, advised his Government to forbid any settlements west of the mountains, saying that if they were permitted it would not be long before they would declare themselves independent, and would be able to maintain their liberties against any force that could be sent against them.

General Washington was not only one of the first to see the possibilities of the Ohio Valley, but was the first to suggest that the great lakes and the Mississippi River be connected. His suggestion was for canals, as railroads were

not then known. This suggestion did not bear fruit in his day, but a third of a century later it took hold of the imagination of some of the enterprising citizens of the East. The Erie canal had been completed and the fever of railroad building had taken possession of the public mind. There was an abundance of idle capital, both in this country and in England, all seeking investment, and the Ohio Valley presented the most enticing inducements. It was then that Indiana lost her opportunity. It was projected to unite Lake Erie and Lake Michigan by a great double track railroad, and then to extend the road on southwestwardly to the head of steamboat navigation on the Illinois River. It was a grand project. The road was to start from a point on Lake Erie at the head of Maumee Bay, and connect with Lake Michigan at Michigan City. The harbor at Michigan City was naturally a better one than that at Chicago. In 1835 the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad Company was granted a charter by the Legislature of Indiana and the route surveyed.

Among those interested in the project was Daniel Webster, the great Senator of Massachusetts. He came out to Indiana, when the work of building the road was begun with great ceremonies, he delivering an address on the occasion to a large concourse of people, gathered from all parts, and throwing up the first shovel of dirt. So confident were he and his fellow-projectors that the work would be completed, and Michigan City become a great city on the lake, that they purchased a great deal of property, and thus the little town experienced its first boom. There were three things they did not count on: The first stumbling block was the Illinois Legislature. Unfortunately for the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad, in those days it was

necessary to get a charter in every State through which the road was to operate. Chicago was a little town in the swamps, but her citizens were active and far-seeing. They could readily see that if the projected railroad was constructed Michigan City would be the great lake port, and they would be left to enjoy the swamps. They organized a lobby and prevented the Illinois Legislature from granting the charter asked for. The second obstacle was the apathy on the part of the citizens of Indiana. They seemed to take but little interest in it and made no effort to overcome the opposition of Chicago. The projectors, nor the people of Indiana, it seems did not deem it possible to reach the Mississippi by any other route. Or if they did they must have thought the hills along the Ohio in Southern Indiana could not be overcome by a railroad, for no effort was made to reach the Ohio wholly through Indiana territory. The third obstacle was the great panic of 1837. That put an end, for the time being to all railroad and canal building.

Chicago, having killed the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad did not neglect to push its own interests, and when the effect of the financial panic was worn off, began agitating a road from that city to the Mississippi. Fortunately for Chicago, Illinois had Stephen A. Douglas in the Senate, and after years of persistent work he induced Congress to grant millions of acres of public land to build the Illinois Central railroad. Thus Chicago arose from her swamps and became the great city of the lake, and the wonder of the world, while Michigan City only had a few miles of railroad embankment to remind it of what might have been.

While few States have possessed so much natural wealth, it is also true that few States have so wasted away or recklessly destroyed their sources of wealth. The timber

of Indiana alone would have made the wealth of an ordinary nation. When the first settlers came over the mountains, from Pennsylvania and Virginia, they found Indiana covered with a forest the like of which they never had even dreamed. It was a revelation to them, but they did not see the wealth contained in those giant trees. Stately maples, giant poplars, majestic oaks, slender and beautifully proportioned ash, together with beech, hickory, walnut, chestnut, and elm were found everywhere, but the settler only saw the soil which supported such a wealth of forest growth, and the trees fell like chips before the axe. Thousands upon thousands of sugar maples, each of which now would be an annual source of wealth to the owner, were cut down and sold for firewood. Walnuts, each of which would now bring the price of a small farm, went to make fence rails; giant poplars, each of which would furnish lumber enough for a small house, went to feed the burning log heap. Year after year this destruction went on, until no estimate can now be formed of the riches thus wasted.

BUILDING STONE.

Indiana has not been so reckless and wasteful with her other sources of natural wealth. No State in the Union possesses better stone for building purposes than Indiana. It is hard to estimate just what amount of wealth Indiana holds in this direction. The oolitic limestone of Monroe, Lawrence and other Counties, although long known, is yet but in the infancy of its popularity. Its durability and strength has been demonstrated by actual use, and to-day it ranks as the favorite stone among architects and builders. Only a few years ago and the world would have laughed at the idea of coming to Indiana for the stone out

of which to construct great public buildings, fine business blocks and costly residences, but to-day the Indiana stone is eagerly sought after, and it goes to nearly all the States of the Union. The Government buys it for her public buildings, States use it for their capitols, cities for their halls, and the wealthy for their palaces. It is of a uniform rich gray color and close texture. It is easily quarried and prepared for the use of the builder. The best grades contain ninety-eight per centum of carbonate of lime, which is practically indestructible by ordinary atmospheric influences. Iron oxide and alumina are two of the most damaging constituents of such stone, but the Indiana oolitic contains less than one per centum of those destroying agencies, thus showing a remarkable degree of purity.

The best deposits of the oolitic stone are found in a narrow strip of territory extending from Greencastle, Putnam County, to Salem, Washington County, a distance of more than one hundred miles. The width of the strip varies from three to ten miles, and the stone is found very near the surface. Between fifteen and twenty million cubic feet are quarried annually, and the supply is great enough to last at this rate for many years. Nor is this the only good building stone in Indiana. In southeastern Indiana, notably in Decatur County, are extensive quarries of blue limestone. This stone is capable of resisting a heavier pressure than any other stone in the West, which makes it peculiarly valuable for foundations of large buildings, and much of it is used for that purpose. It is easily quarried and can be taken out in blocks of any required size. When first taken out it is soft and easily worked, but hardens by exposure. For paving purposes it has no superior, and slabs containing one hundred and sixty square feet are often quar-

ried. The supply of this stone is hardly conceivable, and as the country grows and large buildings multiply, the wealth it will bring to Indiana will be very great.

Western Indiana is largely underlaid by a sandstone that is easily worked, and is of great commercial value. In many places, notably Dubois, Green and Parke Counties it is of a handsome brown color. One use to which this brown stone is being largely put, is for lintels and cornices above the windows and doors of buildings whose fronts are composed of dry pressed brick. Where limestone is used for lintels the rain in time will dissolve some small portion of the stone, which in flowing down over the brick gives a moldy and streaked appearance. Where brown sandstone is used no such streaking is seen. In Fountain, Warren and Perry Counties is found a buff and gray sandstone. In Orange County is found a most valuable grit for whetstones, and the quarries are largely worked.

COAL.

Among the most valuable of the natural products of Indiana may well be counted the coal measures. Seven thousand square miles, or one-fifth of the area of the State is underlaid with coal. This area is found in the western and southwestern part of the State, and ranges from ten to sixty miles in width. It extends southward from Warren County to the Ohio River, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles, where it reaches its greatest width, stretching across the Counties of Vanderburgh, Warrick, Spencer, and part of Perry. Workable veins are found in nineteen Counties, in the area mentioned, while thin outcrops occur in three other Counties. At least seven distinct veins of workable thickness are found in the State. These vary from

three to eleven feet in thickness and in a few places reach an aggregate of from twenty-five to twenty-eight feet. Clay, Sullivan, Greene, Daviess and Pike show the greatest development in coal seams, while Parke, Vermillion, Vigo, Owen, Warrick and Spencer follow very closely.

The coals of the State are of two varieties, which, in places merge into one another. These are the non-caking or block coal, and the caking or bituminous. The first is one of the most valuable fuels in the United States. It has a laminated structure and in the direction of the bedding lines splits readily into thin sheets, but breaks with difficulty in the opposite direction. It is mined in blocks as large as it is convenient to handle. This gives it its name of "block coal." It is remarkably free from sulphur or phosphorus, and when burning does not swell out. It does not form into a cake by running together. It burns remarkably clear, leaving no clinkers, the only residue being a small quantity of white ashes. This coal is especially valuable as a furnace coal. Ordinarily bituminous coals have to be changed into coke, by having their volatile constituents driven off, before they can be utilized in the making of iron products. The sulphur which they contain, if permitted to remain, would destroy the tenacity and malleability of the iron. Their tendency to cake or become packed under the weight of the overlying mass in the blast furnace prevents the free passage of the heat through all portions of the molten iron. The block coal, on account of its freedom from sulphur and phosphorus, and its non-caking qualities, can be used in the blast furnace without coking, thus making it of the greatest value to the iron founder.

For steam and household purposes it stands almost unrivaled. It burns with a uniform blaze that spreads evenly

over the exposed surfaces of the boiler, thus securing a uniform expansion of the boiler plates. Its lack of sulphur is another favorable feature in this connection, as it has but little detrimental effect upon the boilers, grates or fire boxes. In house grates it burns with a bright, cheerful blaze, such as is made by well seasoned hickory wood, and makes a very hot fire. As a fuel for household use it is only surpassed by natural gas. The block coal area is mainly in Clay, western Owen and southeastern Parke Counties, though small deposits are found in other sections of the State.

The bituminous or caking coals found in Indiana vary much in purity and character, but their average will compare favorably with that of the coal found in other States. They are far more abundant than the block coals, covering an area of almost six thousand five hundred square miles. Four workable seams are known, the greatest aggregate thickness of which is twenty feet, and the average thickness over the greater part of the area, eleven feet. The Indiana coal fields are yet in the infancy of their development. In 1895 according to the statistics gathered by the Mine Inspector of the State, 4,105,210 tons were mined from them. It has been computed that a ton of good coal, used in a good engine, will perform the same amount of work as one thousand three hundred horses in a day of ten hours. The amount mined in Indiana in 1895, had, therefore, stored up within it, a power equal to that which would be exerted by 14,621,300 horses working ten hours a day for a whole year. It will be several generations before the natural supply of fuel in Indiana is exhausted. Yearly it will add its wealth to the State.

NATURAL GAS.

The year 1887 saw another source of great natural wealth added to those which a Divine Providence had bestowed upon Indiana. Pennsylvania had long been the beneficiary of the gas, stored by nature, in the bowels of the earth, waiting for man's necessities for its utilization. Ohio had also developed a natural gas territory. It was believed by many that Indiana also covered a storehouse of this fuel, of which it has been aptly said, "that it furnishes its own transportation." Some attempts to find this field had been made, but failure followed. At last, however, near Portland, Jay County, a well brought forth its product. Since then millions of dollars have been invested within the gas field, and thousands of people have flocked thereto. Cities sprung up where only villages or towns had been—cities now containing thousands of inhabitants, cities with concreted and electric-lighted streets, cities with street railroads, opera houses, great churches, water plants, and the busy hum of the factory. These are a few of the things brought to Indiana by its natural gas. Anderson, Muncie, Kokomo, Marion, Alexandria and Elwood, have been the greatest beneficiaries of this wonderful fuel, but Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, Logansport, Peru, and other cities and towns have reaped benefits of almost incalculable value. Wealth and population have flowed into the State in a steady stream.

Originally the area embraced in the gas field, covered about five thousand square miles, lying almost altogether in the central and eastern parts of the State. On account of the encroachment of salt water and petroleum this area has been gradually reduced until the main field contains only

about two thousand five hundred square miles. This is larger than has ever been possessed by any other State. In 1897, however, wells furnishing a strong supply were opened in parts of the State far remote from what had up to that time been held to be the only gas field.

The average initial or rock pressure of the entire field was, in 1889, three hundred and twenty-five pounds to the square inch. It was estimated in 1897, that after eight years of use, the pressure had been reduced about one hundred pounds to the square inch. When this great supply of nature's fuel will be wholly exhausted, is only a matter of conjecture, but there are many reasons for believing that the gas in the undeveloped territory, in the main field, will furnish an adequate supply for many years yet, and that other fields will be developed in other sections of the State.

PETROLEUM.

For thirty years enthusiastic Indianians dreamed of wealth in oil fields, but no systematic effort was made to determine whether the State had hidden away under the surface of the earth that mine of riches. After the discovery of natural gas, the oil fever became greater, and some wells sunk in search of gas disclosed the presence of oil. The development of the oil field, however, did not begin until 1894. Since then the production of petroleum has attained enormous proportions, the output for 1896 being 4,659,000 barrels.

The area in which the oil is found has steadily increased, and comprises parts of Adams, Wells, Huntington, Grant, Blackford, Jay, Randolph, Delaware and Madison Counties. A few wells have been opened in other parts of the State, but the yield has been light. It is not impossible that the

oil field will eventually be found to cover fully as great an area as the natural gas supply. The oil is mainly conveyed out of the State by pipe lines.

CLAY DEPOSITS.

Among the most valuable of the undeveloped resources of the State are the clay deposits, which will in the future prove a source of unlimited wealth. In one form or another they are found in every County, but the largest and most valuable ones occur in the western and southwestern parts of the State, where the coal measures exist, for the coal measures of the State are pre-eminently its clay measures. Every seam of coal is normally underlaid by a bed of fire clay, and above the coal there are almost always beds of shale.

These coal shales a few years ago were thought to be worthless, but experiment has proved that they are excellently adapted to the making of paving brick, roofing tile, sewer pipe, and many similar products. In Ohio, where forty-four paving brick factories turned out 298,000,000 paving brick, in 1894, eighty per cent. of the best grade were made of the carboniferous shales, which a dozen years ago were wholly unused.

The fire clays from beneath the coal can be utilized for the same purposes as the overlying shales, and many of the better grades can be made into refractory wares of good quality. Some of them are also well suited for potter's use.

In Lawrence, Martin and Owen Counties there occur large deposits of a white kaolin, which is the highest grade of clay found in the State. A careful chemical analysis shows that it contains less than two per centum of impurities. The quantity of iron oxide is so small as to have no

effect upon the color of the wares made from it, they being, if anything, whiter than the clay itself. Like many similar kaolins, this is practically non-plastic; but by grinding very fine and then kneading, it can be made to assume a certain degree of plasticity. Its refractory properties are the highest, and mixed with a small percentage of a more plastic material, as one of the purer under clays of the coal seams, it can be used in the making of the finer grades of retorts, glass pots, glass tanks, etc. Ground fine and pressed dry it makes the highest grade of fire brick. Much of it has been utilized in the past for the making of pottery, and also for alum salts used as sizing for the finer grades of writing and wall paper. Thousands of tons of this purest of clays are visible in the mines which have been opened near Huron, Lawrence County. The stratum thickens as progress is made further back into the hills. The deposit is not a local one, covering a few rods or acres, but square miles, as evidenced by out-crops which are known. There is enough in sight in the mines at this one deposit to last an average factory for a full century, and not a thousandth part has been exposed to view. There it lies, a great mineral resource of untold value, unworked, unutilized, awaiting the coming of energy and capital to make it up into many kinds of products which are now brought into Indiana from distant lands.

Raw materials and fuel both of excellent qualities, are found associated together in enormous quantities in many places which are accessible to transportation; and where the three elements of fuel, raw material and transportation are thus combined, capital, in time is sure to come and utilize the natural resources. The larger clay industries already in existence in the vicinity of Brazil, Terre Haute, and other places, are all of them flourishing; the demand for

their products in many instances being greater than can possibly be supplied. They have proved by actual experience that the shales and under-clays of the coal measures are in every way fitted for manufacturing purposes.

One of the chief beneficial effects which the development of the clay working industries will bring about, will be the increasing of the available amount of coal in the State. Many seams now thought to be too thin to work will be utilized in connection with the associated shales and fire clays. The minimum thickness of a workable seam of coal will, therefore, be greatly reduced, and many veins which have been permitted to pass unnoticed will be mined with profit.

OTHER ORES.

Limonite or bog iron ore, and siderite or kidney iron ore, are found abundantly in several Counties of Indiana. The former occurs notably in Greene, Martin and Perry Counties, and in the swamps of the Kankakee region; the siderite is found in all of the coal bearing Counties. Experience has proved, however, that these ores are too silicious to compete with the rich beds of hematite of Missouri, Tennessee and Georgia. As a proof of this it is only necessary to state that of fourteen blast furnaces which have been erected in the State in the past, not one is in operation at the present. Most of them have long since gone to ruin and of those still standing the last one went out of blast in 1893.

With the exception of small quantities of drift gold, in the form of minute grains and scales, which are found in the sands and gravel beds along the streams of Brown, Morgan and other Counties, near the southern limit of the drift area, no gold, silver or other precious metals are found in

the State. In many of the northern Counties of the State small pieces of "black-jack," or zinc blende, galena or red sulphide and native copper, are occasionally found, and give rise to much local excitement and speculation.

CHAPTER XXVI.

MANUFACTURES.

Indiana now takes rank among the first States of the Union in the extent and variety of her manufactured products. Manufacturing in Indiana was a plant of slow growth, for many years, but in 1887 it sprung rapidly into a giant tree. In the early settlement of the State the only dream of the people was to develop the agricultural resources. At first the grain for home consumption was ground in hand mills, or crushed in mortars. Then horse mills were introduced with a very little capacity. These in turn were succeeded by water mills. In all these no grinding was done except for neighborhood use. They were operated altogether on the "toll" system, the owners of the mill never buying the grain. The first houses were constructed of logs, the floors being made of puncheons, and the roof of "clapboards," riven from timber sawed of the proper length by saws operated by hand. As population increased and the demand arose for houses of a more pretentious style, saw mills were introduced, but like the grain mills they only operated to supply the neighborhood demand. Clothing of all kind was made by the women of the household, they spinning the yarn and weaving the fabric. Every house had its spinning wheel and its hand loom. Indiana had been among the sisterhood of States a number of years before a

mill was erected for spinning and weaving fabrics for domestic use, and then they were small concerns, depending for their raw material on the few sheep raised in the section of country within a few miles of the mill. The supply of raw material only furnished employment for the mill for a few months of the year. There was no way of getting the manufactured product to market, even had there been a market.

After the State had increased in population and agricultural products far enough to need a foreign market, the surplus wheat was hauled to Lawrenceburg or Louisville and there ground into flour, to be floated down the river to New Orleans. In 1831, a steam mill was erected in Indianapolis, believed to be the first in the State. It was a pretentious affair, and was to saw lumber, grind flour and manufacture woolen goods. It proved a lamentable failure. The mill soon supplied all the lumber needed for the embryo capital, and then the saws were idle. It could in a few weeks grind all the wheat raised in the vicinity, and not enough wool was offered to keep the looms in operation more than one or two months out of the twelve. Until after the introduction of railroads nearly the entire manufacturing industries of the State were confined to steamboat building. The magnificent forests of southern Indiana offered great inducements for shipbuilding. Steam navigation on the Ohio and Mississippi grew very rapidly, and for a number of years Indiana very nearly monopolized the trade in boat building. The first few steamers were built at Pittsburg, but Madison, Jeffersonville, New Albany, and at a later period Evansville, were largely engaged in constructing steamboats. Many of the finest and fastest steamers ever plying the western waters were built at Madison and New

Albany. This boat building gave an impetus to the construction of the machinery for them, and founderies and machine shops furnished work for large forces of skilled mechanics. As steamboats increased and a way to market was made, flour mills increased in the river towns, and at length quite a trade sprung up in flour, to be shipped to the Southern cities.

As railroads increased and drew away traffic from the river, the building of boats decreased, and for many years was pretty nearly abandoned, but of late years it has revived and now the ship yards at Madison and Jeffersonville are once more doing a thriving business. The capital invested in this branch of industry amounts to about \$3,000,000 and the output to about \$4,000,000. This revival of steamboat building has had a decided effect in reviving other branches of industry in the river towns and cities. Indiana handicraft is now seen in some of the finest and fleetest steamers that ply on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. This and other branches of industry, however, are very fast denuding our forests of the remaining trees of commercial value.

Among the earliest manufactures in Indiana was that of staves, and heading for cooperage. The forests of Southern Indiana especially abounded in excellent timber for this business, and factories were started in a number of the towns and cities, and vast quantities of the timber were used in this direction. At first the people of Indiana began to ship the young timber for hoops, to other States. This was either floated down the Ohio River on flat boats, or loaded into cars, for transportation to distant points, and at one time it was no unusual thing to see whole trains loaded with hoop-pole timber. The next thing was to rive out the headings and staves and ship them away to be put

together at some distant point. The heading and stave factories were started to prepare the work for the cooperage in our own State. This was a very thriving business and is still carried on to a large extent. In 1896 there were fifty-six establishments engaged in this business, and the output was about \$2,000,000, and about three thousand men were furnished with employment.

Among the earliest manufacturing industries, on a large scale, was that of wagons and other vehicles. The abundant timber found in the forests of the State made this class of work very profitable, and for many years Indiana wagons and carriages have been famous not only in this country but abroad, and thousands of Indiana-made vehicles have been shipped to other countries. The capital invested in this class of manufacture is very large, and several thousand people find constant employment. The output in 1896 amounted to nearly if not quite \$10,000,000. There is no way of telling the number of vehicles of the various kinds manufactured annually in the State, but there are several establishments which turn out many thousands each. They do not confine themselves now to the timber of Indiana, but all the States are searched for suitable material, and hundreds of men are employed in cutting the timber, not included in the number of employes in the factories proper. Few appreciate the enormous proportions to which this industry has grown within the last few years. The great railroad facilities found in the State, furnishing ready access to timber, no matter how far away, and a way to reach a market with the manufactured products still makes Indiana the favorite place for this industry.

Timber furnishing the only raw material in Indiana for manufactures, it is not surprising that for many years the

principal industries were confined to products made from this raw material. The manufacture of furniture followed closely on the heels of that of vehicles, and to-day is one of the leading industries in the State, in number of establishments. The output is not so large, but still it amounts to several million dollars. Much of this furniture is shipped to distant points. Especially is this the case with desks for offices. Some establishments engaged in this latter branch of the business have made extensive shipments to Mexico, the South American States and to Europe. There were in 1896 one hundred and sixteen establishments engaged in the manufacture of furniture.

Farm implements, is another business using up the raw material in timber, and has been extensively carried on for a number of years. Especially in the manufacture of plows has Indiana excelled. The business in this line has been very large, but reapers, mowers, threshers and all the smaller implements are manufactured on a large scale.

Of late years the making of bicycles has furnished employment for hundreds of people, and the output has been a great source of revenue. This business increases with every year. In this same line is the building of cars. All the great railroad lines have their own shops, where their cars are repaired and rebuilt, and some of them turn out new cars, especially passenger coaches, but there are several establishments engaged exclusively in building freight cars. The constant demand for repairs and rebuilding on the railroad lines furnishes employment for many thousand skilled mechanics, and of itself adds largely to the manufacturing industry of the State, but as the work is mainly confined to repairs and rebuilding the output in value cannot be arrived at. If it could be classified it would add very largely to the manufacturing statistics of the State.

The iron industry ranks among the largest in the State, both for the number of establishments and the capital invested. In reality this may be called one of the new industries, although the State has had a few establishments for many years. The first were engaged exclusively in building boilers and machinery for steamboats, and were the outgrowth of that industry. It 1896 there were one hundred and sixty-six establishments in the State engaged in the manufacture of iron products. They are pretty generally diversified over the State, being found in forty-seven cities and towns. These establishments manufacture engines, boilers and machinery of many kinds, bar iron and steel, structural iron, iron fences, wire nails and barbed wire, etc. The capital invested in this industry amounts to more than \$10,000,000. The growth in number and of variety of product has been phenomenal since the discovery of natural gas. Some years ago several attempts were made to establish blast furnaces in the State, but owing to the fact that the iron ore had to be brought from sections where coal was as abundant and cheap as it was in Indiana, compelled the abandonment of the effort, and the last furnace went out of blast some years ago.

Among the new industries brought into the State has been the manufacture of glass, and within ten years it has assumed enormous proportions, employing several thousand men and more than \$5,000,000 of capital. Before the discovery of natural gas, there was but one establishment in the State, and that was engaged exclusively in the making of plate glass. In 1896 there were sixty-two—twenty-five making window glass, fifteen bottles, six fruit jars, three art glass, two lamp chimneys, and five table ware, while others made miscellaneous work. Indiana has the proud

distinction of being the first to solve the manufacture of plate glass successfully in this country, and it was the enterprise, pluck and perseverance of a native of the State that demonstrated to the world that plate glass could be successfully made in America, and that, too, after several attempts had been previously made in other States and failed. The history of the introduction of the manufacture of plate glass in America is a very interesting and instructive one.

Prior to 1865 the plate glass of the world was manufactured in Belgium, France and England. Its manufacture had been originally confined to Belgium, but when Colbert was the Minister of Louis XIV, he caused it to be introduced into France, and maintained it there both by large government subsidies and by prohibitory laws against its importation. Its importation into France was practically forbidden until 1860. England followed the lead of France in aiding in the introduction of the industry into that country. The government for many years paid a large royalty on every foot of glass manufactured. A heavy import duty was also levied upon the glass manufactured in other countries. In 1865 the price in the United States of plate glass was two dollars and fifty cents per foot.

The time seemed ripe to introduce its manufacture into this country, as the United States had become a large consumer of plate glass, and after a careful examination of the matter some New York and Boston capitalists built a plant at Lenox, Massachusetts. Within five years they were compelled to go into bankruptcy, after having lost \$1,100,000. The foreign makers had largely reduced the price, so much so that the American concern could not compete with them. The next effort was by some Pennsylvania capitalists, who established a plant in Philadelphia. They did not fare any

better than their New York and Boston predecessors, except in the fact that they abandoned their attempt after losing \$500,000. A plant was then started at Louisville, Kentucky, which made a struggle for the establishment of the industry. It failed twice before it finally succumbed to the inevitable, and after footing up a loss of \$400,000 it gave up the struggle. Another attempt was made at Jeffersonville, Indiana, but it had no better success than the others, and at last went into bankruptcy after having lost \$300,000.

An effort had been made to establish a plant at New Albany. In this Mr. Washington C. DePauw was interested. He took some of the stock and loaned the concern a large amount of money. It was a losing venture like all the others. It was not long before all the capital, \$300,000, had been sunk, and an additional loss of as much more had been encountered. Mr. DePauw kept putting more and more money into it, until he had invested nearly half of his large fortune. He took direction of the business himself, and the syndicate of foreign manufacturers sent him word that he had better stop and pocket his losses, or they would bankrupt him, as they had all others who had attempted to manufacture plate glass in this country.

This threat only spurred him to new efforts, and at last, in 1879, after he had encountered a loss of more than \$600,000, he finally solved the question and proved that plate glass could be made in this country at a profit. It was a great triumph for the pluck and energy of a citizen of Indiana. The cost to the consumer of plate glass had been largely reduced in those years when Mr. DePauw was struggling with the foreign monopoly. Before the establishment of his plant the price was about \$2.50 per square foot, and it had been reduced to seventy-five cents. Thus, a light of glass

that cost in America, before the establishment of this plant, \$110, costs now about \$30. The discovery of natural gas speedily brought into the State a very large number of plants manufacturing almost all kinds of glass products. Take the single city of Muncie. The first factory was started there in 1889. The capital invested was \$100,000, and the output for the first year was about \$250,000. The total number of employes was two hundred. In 1897 there were eight factories in full operation, employing 2,600 people, with a capital of \$1,750,000 invested and an output of \$4,000,000. The factories there make large shipments to Norway and New Zealand. Anderson, Marion, Alexandria, Kokomo and other cities are large producers of glass products, and the industry is worth many million dollars to Indiana.

Another industry which came in with the natural gas is the tin plate. It did not have so long a struggle to get a foothold as had been experienced with the manufacture of plate glass, but it met with its losses. The first establishment in Indiana was in 1891. This was the first out-and-out tin plate factory in the United States. In 1876 there had been an attempt to manufacture tin plate in the United States, but it had failed. In 1897 six factories were operating in Indiana, with a capital of \$2,000,000, and furnishing employment for 3,000 persons. The output in 1896 was more than \$3,000,000. This industry is confined altogether to the gas belt. The chief market is in the United States, but the mill at Elwood has shipped some plate to Europe.

The manufacture of zinc is also largely carried on in the State. Three causes combined to bring this industry into the State—nearness to market, ready transportation and cheap fuel. Zinc ore is found in many parts of the United

States. It appears to be in a narrow belt stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, cropping out here and there, and in other places being so deep under the surface that its mining is impracticable or unprofitable. The largest deposits are found in Missouri. This great deposit was in easy reach of fuel, but the natural gas was still cheaper, and the manufacture of pig zinc is now being rapidly transferred to this State. The great market for zinc is found in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, and Indiana is in the center of this market. Few realize the extent of the use of zinc. It is largely used in the manufacture of "boxes" for car wheels, barbed wire and electrical appliances. The situation of Indiana and the great railroad facilities enjoyed made it easier to transport the ore to the cheaper fuel than to manufacture it where the ore is mined, and then transport the product to market.

Perhaps the greatest industry in extent, in the amount of capital employed and the value of the output, is the packing of meats. There are seven large establishments of this kind in the State, which in 1896 used \$27,000,000 of material. The largest establishment is at Hammond, in Lake County. This one establishment purchased in 1896 \$19,000,000 worth of cattle, sheep and hogs, for packing purposes. The growth of these industries have been enormous within the last few years.

Encaustic tile, pottery and terra cotta also furnish employment for a large amount of capital, and annually adds materially to the wealth of the State. The manufacturing industries of Indiana cover almost the whole range of such industries in the United States, and the product of her factories seek a market in almost every civilized country of the globe. In 1822, when the first census of manufacturing

industries was taken in the State, the reports made by the United States Census Bureau showed that Indiana had but two hundred and twenty-two persons employed in manufactures. The capital invested then was \$151,749, and the value of the raw material used was \$167,028. The number of establishments was not given. The report of the same bureau for 1890 gave the following figures: Number of establishments, 12,354; employes, 124,349; capital invested, \$131,605,366; value of raw material used, \$130,119,106; value of manufactured product, \$226,825,411. Notwithstanding the great business depression which existed from 1893 to 1897 the number of manufacturing industries in Indiana constantly increased.

The clays of Indiana promise large yields to the investor of capital. Clays of the greatest commercial value are found in almost every County, and this is especially true of the Counties having coal measures. These clays have just begun to be utilized, and when their value becomes thoroughly understood large amounts of capital will be invested in working this great product of nature.

During the last ten years an enormous expansion of the clay industries has taken place in the United States. One of the problems of municipal governments has been that of street paving, and nearly all materials have been tested. The use of vitrified brick for street paving has created a distinctively new industry, and brought into commercial use the clays and shales. Thousands of miles of brick pavements have been laid within the last few years. Prior to 1896 the cities and towns of Indiana, exclusive of Indianapolis, had expended \$850,000 for paving brick, and of that amount \$650,000 went to Ohio and West Virginia, while Indiana has enough clay, of the best quality for such brick,

to supply the whole country for many years. By sending this large sum out of the State for material abundant in the State, Indiana is just that much the poorer. Millions of tons of shales and underclays, well fitted for making the best grades of paving brick exist in the coal Counties of the State.

Architects and builders have been experimenting for a cheap structural material, to take the place of the timber which is rapidly being exhausted, and the clays and shales are rapidly coming into use for such purposes. The use of encaustic tile for floors, of terra cotta and pressed brick for fronts, clay shingles for roofs, constantly increases, and no State in the Union is better supplied with the raw material for all these purposes than Indiana. Arches, culverts, bridges, and even houses are now being built out of a combination of clay and shale. A number of large factories have been recently erected at Brazil, Terre Haute, Clinton, Veedersburg, Cayuga and other towns for manufacturing clay products. Our clay industries are in their infancy, but they are capable of indefinite expansion. There is hardly a County in the State that does not contain large deposits of clays of great value. The time is not far distant when potteries, employing thousands of people and producing hundreds of thousands of dollars, worth of manufactured products, will be in full operation. The kaolins of Lawrence, Martin and Owen Counties are readily converted into the better grades of ultramarine, for which there is always a large demand. For the investor the clays of Indiana offer the most promising field.

The first pottery made in Indiana within the knowledge of the present race, was made by a Frenchman, who brought from his fatherland the skill that enabled him, while being held as a captive by the Indians, to make friends of the sav-

ages by manufacturing for them many vessels for domestic use. This was done from the outcropping of fire clay found along Otto Creek in Clay and Vigo Counties. In the very early settlement of Indiana, and long before she became a State, in many places by rude kilns with a still more rude jolly, worked by a foot treadle, many vessels were made from the surface clays. While neither so good or durable as those made from fire clays, still they answered many conveniences of the early settlers. They were especially utilized as the receptacles for the abundant flow of sugar water so easily obtained throughout the greater portion of the State. Many of these earthen clay vessels still remain in use, though none are now being manufactured.

White settlers began to make use of fire clay for the manufacture of what was then and still is termed stone-ware, in western Indiana as early as 1825. The industry grew quite rapidly so that in 1840 it was a very thriving one in Clay County; the wares reaching by trade distribution at that time nearly every community in the State. In 1853 there were twenty-four pottery kilns in Clay County alone and a few in adjoining Counties, all of which were taxed to their utmost capacity to supply the demand for the goods then made. From 1860 for almost thirty years the manufacture of fire clay stone-ware in Indiana gradually decreased until less was made in 1890 than in 1853. During this period, however, occasional efforts were made to utilize the clays and shales for special purposes, and while the wares and goods produced were satisfactory for the purposes made, no great success attended such enterprises. At Hillsdale and Montezuma each, small plants were erected for making fire clay goods for refractive purposes in the construction of furnaces, crucibles, flues, and generally where

heat resistance is sought. At Montezuma, also a clay roofing tile factory was operated with success so far as related to the quality of the goods produced. A factory at Brazil, was operated making a great variety of fire clay goods from a tobacco pipe to a huge brown jug, and lining for the smallest to the largest crucibles.

Men have engaged in the manufacture of clay goods in Indiana without any knowledge of the necessary elementary conditions surrounding and the influences necessary for financial success. One of our factories was guilty of shipping raw material from points in Pennsylvania and transporting fuel at heavy freightage, ignorant of the fact that almost within a stone's throw immense quantities of superior raw material was to be had at a nominal cost. This was true while factories of large experience, in a successful effort to keep to the front with fine goods, were shipping Indiana clay into Pennsylvania. However, in our most recent history a great change has been wrought. In 1889 the Brazil Brick & Pipe Company and the Indiana Paving Company, of Brazil, were organized and erected and equipped two factories at an expense of over \$75,000 each. The first manufactured vitrified machine-made terra cotta, hollow building blocks, electric conduits, etc.; the second principally vitrified paving goods. The successful operation of these two plants mark an epoch in Indiana's clay manufacturing. Other large plants immediately followed and old ones took on new life, energy and capital, so that there are now ten large plants at Brazil, four near Montezuma, one each at Terre Haute, Evansville, New Albany, Veedersburg and Clinton, operating with a combined capital of nearly two millions of dollars, and turning out in 1896 three million dollars in value of manufactured goods. In the product of

these factories is to be found every variety of vitrified clay and shale, or so called stone ware goods, for ornamental and plain construction, for domestic and household purposes, as well as that out of which the most durable streets and the largest and finest buildings in the world have been and are now being made. Nor is the mere output of these plants alone the most important part of their history. The high art tile for inside decoration, the bric-a-brac for the mantel, and the service for the table and the aluminum in all its varied uses are found among the products wrought from Indiana clay.

Recent experiments have demonstrated that vitrified brick is a most valuable material for foundation purposes. For sewer purposes, they are superior to almost any other material. Machine-made terra cotta was first produced in Indiana, and the several-cored vitrified conduits and hollow vitrified arch blocks are Indiana inventions. The conduits are extensively used for grounding telegraph and telephone wires, and the arch blocks are rapidly taking the place of wooden bridges and culverts on the highways. Vitrified fence posts, which withstand both fire and wind, are made for prairie fencing. These are only a few of the uses to which the clay products are now put.



ARTHUR ST. CLAIR.



THOMAS POSEY.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.



JONATHAN JENNINGS.



RATLIFF BOON.

CHAPTER XXVII.

CIVIL ADMINISTRATIONS.

Under the Territorial form of government affairs were first administered by Governor Arthur St. Clair, Winthrop Sargent, Secretary, and a Board of Judges. Great arbitrary powers were given to the Governors in those early years of our political existence. He appointed all subordinate officers, made grants of lands, and no law could become operative without his consent. His veto was absolute, and from it there was no appeal. Although for thirteen years St. Clair was Governor of the Territory, he exercised but little authority in Indiana, for there was little need for authority. The only white settlement in Indiana was at Vincennes, and it numbered only a hundred or two of families. Before he came himself into this part of his jurisdiction he sent Col. Josiah Harmer to represent him and to look over the situation. He found neither laws nor courts. Magistrates were appointed and some sort of civil government was established. St. Clair had but little time for anything else than fighting or negotiating with the Indians. He found them in possession of all the land, and not inclined to give it up. From 1787 until 1800 it was almost a continual warfare with the Indians. One expedition after another was sent out, and almost universally ended in disaster to the whites, until Anthony Wayne took command of the

troops. In 1800, William Henry Harrison, who had been Secretary of the Northwest Territory, for a short time, and then Territorial delegate in Congress, was made Governor of Indiana Territory, but did not reach Vincennes, the capital of the Territory, for several months, during which time John Gibson acted as Governor. He was a man of sound judgment, great discretion and firmness. He had lived several years among the Indians, and knew their characteristics, and was remarkably successful in his dealings with them. He had spent nearly his whole life on the frontiers, and was just the man to organize and control frontiersmen.

Not long after active hostilities broke out between the United States and Great Britain in 1812, Governor Harrison again took the field, and General Gibson became acting Governor. It was the most critical period of the political existence of the Territory, and when a firm hand and a cool head were needed. They were both found in General Gibson. The Indians were decidedly hostile, and prompt and energetic measures were taken. Aid was asked from Kentucky, and several hundred of her valiant citizens came hurrying to the defense of the infant commonwealth, just as fifty years later Indiana went to the rescue of Kentucky when that State was invaded by the enemies of the Union. The Delaware Indians were disposed to remain at peace and keep faith with the Americans, but a body of Kentucky volunteers started toward the Delaware villages for the purpose of destroying them. General Gibson issued the following letter of instructions to Colonel Robertson, who was in command of the expedition:

Vincennes, September the 9th, 1812.

"Sir—I have just been informed that a body of men have undertaken an expedition against the Delaware towns,

under the impression that the Delawares had done or countenanced the murders which have been committed on the frontiers of Clark county. I have official information that the great body of the Delaware tribes are now in council at Piqua, with commissioners appointed by the President, to hold a treaty with the Indians, or such of them as wish to remain the friends of the United States. They being under the immediate protection of the United States. I do hereby forbid all citizens of this Territory from proceeding against the Delawares without permission from the government, assuring you, at the same time, that no person will be more willing to punish them than myself if they are found to be guilty."

General Gibson had a watchful care over the interests of the settlers, and he did not propose to have those interests jeopardized by an unwarranted war on the Indians by irresponsible bands of whites. He continued to act as Governor until Mr. Posey was appointed to that position. Throughout all the trying times he was firm, judicious and careful.

The last session of the Territorial Legislature held at Vincennes convened on the 1st of February, 1813. Governor Harrison was away in command of the western army, and General Gibson was acting Governor. In his message to the Legislature, among other things, the General said:

"The Governor of the Territory having been for some time absent from us, the gubernatorial functions consequently devolving upon, have been exercised by me. In my discharge of this important trust, I have been actuated by none other than a wish to preserve public rights and protect private property. If I have, at any time, failed in my official duties, or erred in my plans, you must attribute it to the head and not to the heart. My address to you, gentlemen,

shall be laconic, for I am not an orator, nor accustomed to set speeches; and did I possess the abilities of a Cicero or Demosthenes, I could not portray in more glowing colors, our foreign and domestic political situation, than it is already experienced within our own breasts. The United States have been, compelled by frequent acts of injustice, to declare war against England. I say compelled, for I am convinced from the pacific and agricultural disposition of her citizens, that it must be a case of the last necessity that would induce such a measure. For the detailed causes of the war, I beg leave to refer you, gentlemen, to the message of his excellency, the President, to Congress, at the commencement of the present session. It is highly worthy the serious perusal of the sage and the patriot. It does honor to the head and heart of Mr. Madison. Although I am not an admirer of wars in the general, yet, as we are now engaged in a necessary and justifiable one, I can exultingly say that I am happy to see, in my advanced days, our little but inimitable navy riding triumphant upon the seas; but chagrined to find that our armies by land are so little successful. The spirit of '76 appears to have fled from our continent; or, if not fled, is at least asleep, for it appears not to pervade our armies generally. On the contrary, lassitude—and, too often, schisms—have crept in and usurped the place of patriotic ardor.

“At your last assemblage, gentlemen, our political horizon seemed clear; our infant territory bid fair for rapid and rising grandeur; our population was highly flattering; our citizens were becoming prosperous and happy; and security dwelt everywhere, even on our frontiers. But, alas! the scene has changed, and whether this change, as it respects our territory, has been owing to an over anxiety in us to ex-

tend our dominions, or a wish for retaliation by our foes, or to a foreign influence, I shall not attempt to decide. But that there is a change, and that, too, a distressing one, is evident. For the aborigines, our former neighbors and friends, have become our most inveterate foes. They have drawn the scalping knife and raised the tomahawk, and shouts of savage fury are heard at our thresholds. Our former frontiers are now our wilds, and our inner settlements have become frontiers. Some of our best citizens, and old men, worn down with age, and helpless women, and innocent babes, have fallen victims to savage cruelty. Our citizens, even in our towns, have frequent alarms and constant apprehensions as to their preservation. I have not been inattentive to my duty, gentlemen, but have hitherto, and shall continue to exert every nerve to afford to our citizens all possible protection, and it is to be hoped that the all-wise and powerful Creator and Governor of the Universe will not forget His people, but cover us from our savage and sanguinary foe by His benign interposition."

It was at this session of the Legislature that the capital of the Territory was changed from Vincennes to Corydon. During the year the Territory was in a bad way for defense against the Indians, as the General Government could do, or would do but little, while a large number of the able-bodied men had been taken away to defend other points from the enemy. An inadequately organized and armed militia was all the dependence the people had for defense.

In thus following out, in a connected story, the actions of General Gibson, we have necessarily wandered away, somewhat, from the thread of the narrative of civil administrations, and must glance at the administration of Governor Harrison. He arrived at Vincennes on the 10th of

January, 1801, and at once assumed control and direction of affairs. His administration was an eventful one. He was given a wide latitude in dealing with the Indians. His instructions were to maintain peace if possible, and to use every exertion to get the Indians to surrender their title to the lands in the Territory, and from the very beginning of his administration to its close he was in almost constant treaty with some one of the various tribes. During much of his administration he had a stormy time of it politically. He was surrounded by a faction or cabal of men who endeavored to use him for their own political ambitions, while others were as deeply hostile to him, and made every effort to break him down.

During his administration the Territory passed to the second stage of Territorial Government, and it was while that question was being agitated the most determined effort to secure a repeal of the anti-slavery clause of the Ordinance of 1787 was made. Governor Harrison favored the introduction of slavery, and used all his powers to create a sentiment in favor of that institution. Had he not been cool-headed he would have been overwhelmed by the opposition to him, but the people believed in him, and in his honesty and patriotism. On assuming the duties of Governor he appointed William McIntosh Territorial Treasurer, and John Rice Jones Attorney General. These men afterward became very bitter enemies of the Governor and traduced him on every hand. They resorted to the newspapers and filled their columns with charges against General Harrison. A libel suit followed in which the Governor obtained a judgment for \$4,000 against McIntosh. During the whole time of the administration of Governor Harrison the Indians were more or less troublesome, and he was finally compelled

to call out the militia to punish the followers of the Prophet, which he did at Tippecanoe. The people of the Territory, and of the State, never lost their affection for Governor Harrison, and both times when he was a candidate for President, gave the electoral vote of the State to him.

Governor Harrison was followed by General Thomas Posey, who at the time of his appointment was a Senator from Louisiana. The Territory then had but few inhabitants, and the outlook was not very encouraging, yet here was a man who was willing to give up a seat in the United States Senate for the Governorship of the new Territory. Since then the Territory has blossomed into an empire, yet men seek the Governorship only as a stepping stone to the Senate. Times have changed. He entered upon the discharge of his duties as Governor in May, 1813, and on the 6th of the next December delivered his first message to the Legislature. His health was very poor, and during his service as Governor he resided most of the time at Jeffersonville, for the benefit of medical treatment from Louisville. This at first caused some friction between the Governor and the Legislature. The first session of the Legislature, under his administration, completed its labors on the 4th of January, 1814. Under the old rule the Legislature could not adjourn itself, but had to be prorogued by the Governor. On this occasion the Governor was not at Corydon, when the Legislature concluded its labors on the 4th, and it waited to hear from him until the 6th, when it passed the following preamble and resolution:

“Whereas, Both houses of the Legislature did, on the 4th inst., inform the Governor that they had gone through their legislative business, and were ready to be prorogued; and

"Whereas, The expense of near fifty dollars per day doth arise to the people of the Territory by reason of the Legislature being kept in session—all of which evils and inconvenience doth arise from the Governor leaving the seat of government during the session of the Legislature and going to Jeffersonville, and the Legislature having to send their committee of enrolled bills to that place to lay them before him for his approval and signature; be it therefore,

"Resolved, That in order to prevent any further expense accruing to the Territory at the present session, that the President of the Legislative Council and the Speaker of the House of Representatives be and are hereby authorized to receive the report of the Governor of the bills by him signed or rejected, and his order of prorogation, and communicate the same to the clerks of the respective houses, who shall insert the same in their journals in the same manner as if the two houses were in session."

The Legislature then adjourned itself without day. It will be seen that in those early days the legislators were anxious to save all possible expense to the people. In this also, times have changed somewhat. The last session of the Territorial Legislature began at Corydon on the first Monday of December, 1815. At that session a petition to Congress was adopted, asking that Indiana might be admitted into the Union as a State, and steps were ordered to have a census of the population taken. Governor Posey was still very much afflicted, and his health required him to remain at Jeffersonville. He could not even attend the opening of the session and sent his message by his private secretary. By this time the members had got more in sympathy with the Governor, and in its response to his message said:

"They [the Legislature] cannot refrain from declaring

their perfect approbation of your official conduct as Governor of this Territory. During your administration many evils have been remedied, and we particularly admire the calm, dispassionate, impartial conduct which has produced the salutary effects of quieting the violence of party spirit, harmonizing the interests as well as the feelings of the different parties of the Territory. Under your auspices we have become one people."

The violence of party spirit referred to was that which had grown up over the slavery question. During the administration of Governor Harrison that distinguished officer had striven, with all his might, to induce Congress to repeal the clause of the Ordinance of 1787 forbidding involuntary servitude, and had been the leader of that faction, and the spirit of opposition had grown very bitter. Governor Posey, on the other hand, accepted the Ordinance as it stood, and advised all to acquiesce in it. When he took his office the war with Great Britain was at its height, but the active measures taken by General Harrison had practically removed the war from the borders of Indiana, but still roaming bands of hostile Indians occasionally committed depredations, and kept the people in a state of continued uneasiness, and mounted rangers had to be maintained. Governor Posey was rather florid in his style of writing or speaking. The following passages taken from his first message to the Legislature are given as samples of his style:

"The present crisis is awful, and big with great events. Our land and nation is involved in the common calamity of war. But we are under the protecting care of the beneficent Being, who has, on a former occasion, brought us safely through an arduous struggle and placed us on a foundation of independence, freedom, and happiness. He will not suffer

to be taken from us what He, in His great wisdom, has thought proper to confer and bless us with, if we make a wise and virtuous use of His good gifts. * * * Although, our affairs at the commencement of the war, wore a gloomy aspect, they have brightened, and promise a certainty of success, if properly conducted, of which I have no doubt; as the President and heads of departments of the General Government are men of undoubted patriotism, talents and experience and who have grown old in the service of their country."

Within sixteen years Indiana had grown from a population of a few hundred, to one of more than sixty thousand, and that, too, in the face of almost continual hostility from the Indian tribes residing in the Territory, and laying claim to the land. By the treaty of Greenville, a small tract of land at the Falls of the Ohio, another at Vincennes, a third at the Wabash portage, and still another at the head of the Maumee, and a narrow strip from Fort Recovery to the mouth of the Kentucky River, comprised all the land ceded to the whites. All the rest of the domain was reserved by the Indian tribes. Other cessions were made from time to time, under the administration of Governor Harrison, but still at the time Indiana was admitted into the Union, less than one-fourth of the State had been relinquished to the whites. In 1810 there were but four Counties in the State, with a total population of 24,520. Within the next six years nine additional Counties had been organized. Notwithstanding Indiana was inhabited by several strong and warlike Indian tribes, the settlers suffered far less from depredations than did those in either Kentucky or Ohio, and much of the credit for that belongs to the men who controlled the civil affairs.

In 1816 Congress passed an enabling act preparatory to the admission of Indiana into the Union as a State. A census of the Territory disclosed a population of more than sixty thousand, distributed as follows:

Counties.	Population.
Wayne	6,407
Franklin	7,370
Dearborn	4,424
Switzerland	1,821
Jefferson	4,270
Clark	7,150
Washington	7,317
Harrison	6,975
Knox	8,068
Gibson	5,330
Posey	1,619
Warrick	1,415
Perry	1,720
Total	63,897

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An election was ordered for choosing delegates to frame and promulgate a constitution, and for the election of a Governor. The two opposing candidates for Governor were Thomas Posey and Jonathan Jennings, then a delegate in Congress. The election was held on the first Monday of August, and Mr. Jennings was elected Governor. Christopher Harrison, Lieutenant Governor, and William Hendricks member of Congress. Although the State was not finally admitted into the Union until December 11, the first Legislature elected under the new constitution began its session on the 7th of November, when Jonathan Jennings took the

oath of office as Governor. By the constitution Governors were elected for a term of three years, and the other State officers, with the exception of Lieutenant Governor, were chosen by the Legislature. Governor Jennings, in his opening message to the General Assembly said:

"The result of your deliberation will be considered as indicative of the future character of the State, as well as of the future happiness of its citizens. The reputation of the State, as well as its highest interest, will require that a just and generous policy toward the general government, and a due regard to the rights of its members respectively, should invariably have their proper influence. In the commencement of the State government the shackles of the colonial should not be forgotten in our limited exertions to prove, by happy experience, that a uniform adherence to the first principles of our government, and a virtuous exercise of its powers, will best secure efficiency to its measures and stability to its character. Without a frequent recurrence to those principles, the administration of the government will imperceptibly become more and more arduous, until the simplicity of our republican institutions may eventually be lost in dangerous expedients and political designs. Under every free government the happiness of the citizens must be identified with their morals; and while a constitutional exercise of their rights shall continue to have its due weight in the discharge of the duties required of the constitutional authorities of the State, too much attention cannot be bestowed to the encouragement and promotion of every moral virtue, and to the enactment of laws calculated to restrain the vicious, and prescribe punishment for every crime commensurate to its enormity. In measuring, however, to each crime its adequate punishment it will be well to recollect

that the certainty of punishment has generally the surest effect to prevent crime; while punishments unnecessarily severe, too often produce the acquittal of the guilty, and disappoint one of the great objects of legislation and good government. * * * The dissemination of useful knowledge will be indispensably necessary as a support of morals, and as a restraint of vice; and on this subject it will only be necessary to direct your attention to the plan of education as prescribed by the constitution."

Mr. Jennings served as Governor for six years, and during his administration the Legislature mainly directed its efforts to putting on the full habiliments of Statehood. Among its first duties was that of filling the other State offices, and electing two members of the United States Senate. Robert A. New was elected Secretary of State, W. H. Lilly, Auditor, and Daniel C. Lane, Treasurer. James Noble and Waller Taylor were chosen Senators. The laws were codified and made applicable to the State Government. A number of laws were passed on various subjects; courts were established and their jurisdiction defined, and the Bank of Vincennes was adopted as a State Bank and was authorized to establish a number of branches. Commissioners were also appointed to select a site for the permanent capital of the State. The slavery question continued to cause considerable concern. Notwithstanding involuntary servitude had been forbidden by the Ordinance of 1787, and again by the State constitution, slaves were openly held, and efforts were continued to introduce slavery under the disguise of apprentices. In his first message to the Legislature Governor Jennings thus referred to the subject:

"I recommend to your consideration the propriety of providing by law, to prevent more effectually any unlawful

attempts to seize and carry into bondage persons of color, legally entitled to their freedom; and, at the same time, as far as practicable, to prevent those who rightfully owe service to the citizens of any other State or territory from seeking within the limits of this State a refuge from the possession of their lawful owners. Such a measure will tend to secure those who are free from any unlawful attempts (to enslave them) and secure the rights of the citizens of the other States and territories as far as ought reasonably be respected."

Even at that early day it appears Indiana was a place for runaway slaves to seek refuge. In 1847 the Governor of Kentucky addressed a letter to Governor Jennings, complaining that escaping slaves were being received and concealed by citizens of Indiana, and loudly protesting against such practices. To this letter Governor Jennings gave a courteous reply, and then submitted it to the Legislature. That body referred it to a committee which made a lengthy report, from which the following is condensed:

"On the subject of the difficulties said to be experienced by the citizens of Kentucky in regaining their fugitive slaves, your committee are of the opinion that the feelings of his Excellency, as well as of the Legislature of Kentucky, have been governed in a great degree by the improper representations of individuals who have been disappointed in their attempts to carry away those whom they claim as slaves from this State, without complying with the preliminary steps required by law, together with the groundless assertions of unprincipled individuals who have attempted, in many instances, to seize and carry away people of color, as slaves, who were free and as much entitled to the protection of the laws as any citizen of Indiana. * * * It

is a well known fact that, whatever may be the opinion of our citizens on the abstract principles of slavery, and however repugnant it may appear, in their estimation, to the principles of moral justice, there is but one sentiment prevalent on this subject of people of color migrating in any circumstances, to this State. It is believed, if not restricted, it would, in time, become an evil of not much less magnitude than slavery itself. * * * Your committee in the further prosecution of the duties assigned them, will take into consideration the laws on the subject of slaves escaping into this State, as well as the laws for the punishment of the crime of man stealing, and, if it shall be found that any new provisions are necessary on either of these subjects, they will form the subjects of future reports."

The question of internal improvements also occupied the attention of the Legislature during the administration of Governor Jennings. The State was rapidly filling up with population, but the lack of means to transport the surplus products to market was delaying immigration. No roads had been built anywhere in the State, except a few that had only been cleared of the trees, and the settlements were still largely confined to the neighborhood of water courses. In August, 1822, before the expiration of his second term Governor Jennings was elected to Congress from the second district, and the unexpired portion of his term as Governor was filled by Lieutenant Governor Ratliff Boon.

Sometime, but just when is uncertain, during the administration of Governor Jennings, the monstrosity that has been used as a State seal ever since was brought forth. Just who is responsible for it is now unknown. The constitution of 1816 gave the Governor the right to use his own private seal until one for the State was adopted. The Legislature

of that year, the first under the State constitution, authorized the Governor to adopt a design and procure a seal for the use of the State. No record of legislative action adopting the seal can be found. It is wholly meaningless, and a glaring absurdity. In 1895 the Legislature passed a resolution looking to the adoption of a new design, but like many another good project it has fallen by the wayside, and the buffalo with head down and tail erect still ornaments all the official documents of the State.

William Hendricks was elected Governor in 1822, but before his time was out he was sent to the United States Senate. During his administration as Governor the people were struggling under the load of business depression following 1820, and but little of moment was done by the Legislature, except advancing the cause of education. During the administration of Governor James Brown Ray, which extended from 1825 to 1831, many marked changes took place. Legislation in the cause of education was still further advanced, and some notable works of internal improvements were started, although no general system was adopted. A road from the Ohio River to Lake Michigan was designed, and by the personal influence of Governor Noble a section of land for every mile of the road, was given by the Indians. It was an era of prosperity to the State. Abundant crops, and increasing business development throughout the whole country materially aided in the development of the new State. Of this era of prosperity, Governor Ray, in his message to the Legislature in 1825 said:

“All that the most ardent could rationally wish for has fallen within the lap of the State. The history of other nations furnishes us with no parallel for our gigantic growth. ‘A wonder among wonders’ our amazing young



JAMES B. RAY.



NOAH NOBLE.



JAMES WHITCOMB.



DAVID WALLACE.



SAMUEL BIGGER.

State, with each annual revolution of the earth, seems destined by the force of circumstances and the energies of her people, to outstrip the geographer with all his sagacity; to develop some dormant treasure, and to exhibit to public view some fascinating projects eminently calculated to attach our citizens to their homes and country, and to enable us to look prospectively to the period when we shall be among the first in power, wealth, and respectability in the grand confederation of North American States."

In 1827 he said:

"When we bring in review before us the successive currents of immigration which annually penetrate the deep recesses of the western forests; when we behold the generous efforts of the enlightened statesman and philanthropist for the establishment of primary and higher schools that education may be equal and universal; when we witness the enterprise and industry of the people, their morality and order, the conclusion follows that all essential elements are concentrating to prosecute and consummate the great design of the social compact."

Governor Ray was an enthusiast on the subject of internal improvement, and never let an opportunity go by unimproved, of urging the matter on the attention of the Legislature and the people. More than any other public man of that day, he clearly foresaw the possibilities before the young commonwealth. He never tired of presenting a picture in which Indianapolis would be the center from which railroads would radiate in every direction, with villages at intervals of five miles, towns at ten miles and respectable cities at twenty miles. His dream has been more than realized. Governor Ray was also ardent in urging upon the Legislature the adoption of some scheme to better care for

the poor and unfortunate of the State. He devoted more or less space in all his messages to the subject, but in his last he was thus urgent:

“Let the philanthropical but look at home for opportunities to display his pious benevolence, and his eye will recognize many a friendless and moneyless orphan child, whose soul only waits to be kindled into flame upon education’s heavenly altar, that he may leave his rags and wretchedness behind him, and, wielding the sword of the hero, or the pen of the statesman, by the force of moral precept in the pulpit, or of eloquence at the bar, or in the senate, rise to the noblest summits of fame and become a pillar of support to his country—but without some aid is doomed to die unseen.

* * * Whilst our own unfortunate poor are sold in the public streets to the lowest bidder, many of whom have seen days that possessed them with the means and rank far above their purchasers, now compelled to feed upon the crumbs of a scanty meal, and to experience, after a life well spent, just as their sun is setting, their worst days, and even the degradation of mastery, and the separation of kindred ties; and while thousands of families are without the word of truth; and tens of thousands of youths, who must soon take the reins of this mighty Republic into their hands, are fast rising to maturity, without sufficient intelligence for the stupendous business of self government, we are admonished by everything sacred and dear to look first to the deranged concerns at home.”

It may be admitted that the above is florid and prolix in style, but the sentiment of the philanthropist and the statesman is there. It was in 1825, during the administration of Governor Ray that the Marquis de Lafayette visited the State. During his administration most of the lands still

held by the Indians were ceded to the Government. As a rule the laws were promptly and equitably enforced, and peace and prosperity reigned. The Wabash and Erie canal had been projected, and it was thought that in the near future the Lakes and the Mississippi would be joined by a grand system of water communication.

In December, 1831, Noah Noble took his seat as Governor, and occupied that office during the next six years. It was under his administration the great system of internal improvements was entered upon. A system which promised great things in the way of developing the resources of the State, but which ended in financial embarrassments which troubled the State for many years. The question of internal improvements was the issue in the campaign of 1831, and Mr. Noble, being one of its strongest advocates, was elected. The building of railroads and canals was attracting the attention of the whole country, and, as the great drawback to the growth and prosperity of Indiana was the lack of communications, by which the surplus products of the farms could be readily transported to market, the people were readily induced to join in almost any project of improvement that might for the moment be agitated. A hundred different projects were brought forward, but Governor Noble wisely insisted that none should be undertaken except those which promised the greatest good to the greatest number of the citizens. Congress had given a magnificent grant of land to aid in the building of the Wabash and Erie Canal, and soon after the induction of Governor Noble into office that great work was begun.

The Legislature finally evolved an elaborate system of works, embracing canals, railroads and turnpikes. Bonds were issued and sold, and the State entered upon an ephem-

eral era of prosperity. Under the stimulus of these great public works, immigration poured in, prices rapidly advanced, and a speculative mania seized upon the people. One of the first matters of public interest under his administration was the building of a State House. Prior to that time the Legislature had been holding its sessions in the Court House of Marion County. When Indianapolis was laid off and declared to be the capital of the State, the Legislature gave to the County a plot of ground on which to erect a court house, and had appropriated eight thousand dollars toward the erection of the building, on the agreement that the State should have the right to use the building for a meeting place of the Legislature for a period of fifty years. But the State had grown rapidly, and it was felt that it ought to have a building of its own. In 1832 the sum of fifty-eight thousand dollars was appropriated to build a State House. It was completed in time for the session of the Legislature in December, 1835. It was occupied until 1877, when the present building was begun.

One thing stood in the way of the great system of internal improvements that was contemplated and so earnestly desired, and that was the claims the Indians still held to a large part of the lands in the State. In 1831 the Legislature petitioned Congress to take steps to extinguish the Indian claims, and a commission for that purpose was appointed. The Pottawattamies readily sold their claims and agreed to remove from the State, but the Miamis steadfastly refused, and it was not until some years later their claims were extinguished. In 1834, under Governor Noble's administration, the State Bank was chartered, the history of which is given in another chapter. The establishment of this bank, and the excellent terms made for the sale of internal im-

provement bonds, furnished the money for the beginning of the internal improvements which were finally agreed upon in 1836. Although this work was advocated by his predecessor, still Governor Noble can rightly be called the author of the system.

During the remainder of his term of office work on all the improvements was pushed with great vigor, and no one anticipated the crash that was so soon to come. While occupied with devising and pushing forward a grand system of public works, neither the Governor nor the Legislature proved inattentive to the cause of education. By the act establishing the State Bank, provision was made for what proved to be a very large permanent fund for the cause of popular education, and in 1836 when Congress divided among the States the surplus revenue fund, the Legislature of Indiana set apart \$573,502.96 of her share to become a part of the permanent school fund.

The next two Governors served but one term each—David Wallace, from 1837 to 1840, and Samuel Bigger from 1840 to 1843. When Governor Wallace entered upon the discharge of the duties of his office the great system of internal improvements was trembling to its fall. The people were beginning to realize that the State had undertaken far too great a work. The works were being built on credit, and the interest on the debt had to be met, and every indication pointed to the fact that when the works should be completed, it would be many years before the revenues derived from them would be sufficient to meet the interest charges, to say nothing of providing a fund for the ultimate extinguishment of the debt incurred. Then, too, the building of the works had brought into the State a vast amount of the depreciated paper currency of other States, which had prac-

tically driven out the sound money. The people were beginning to murmur at the taxation required, and at the depreciation of prices following the great speculative mania of the last few years. Governor Wallace had been an advocate of the internal improvement system, but he early saw the coming collapse. In his message to the Legislature in 1838 he said:

"The truth is, and it would be folly to conceal it, we have our hands full—full to overflowing! and, therefore, to sustain ourselves, to preserve the credit and character of the State unimpeached, and to continue her hitherto unexampled march to wealth and distinction, we have not an hour of time, nor a dollar of money, nor a hand employed in labor, to squander and dissipate upon mere objects of idleness, or taste, or amusement."

The interest charge on the debt of the State was something more than \$200,000 annually, and the State had no money with which to meet it, except what had been obtained by the sale of bonds, and thus the State was paying compound interest, a policy certain to bring financial ruin. Suddenly the whole system of public works was abandoned—the State had no money to pay contractors, and contractors, or at least many of them, took advantage of this fact to abandon the work, without paying the dues of the laborers, and widespread ruin followed. The State was owing many bills, which could not be met, and in 1839 the Legislature issued \$1,500,000 of State scrip, bearing six per cent. interest, and receivable for taxes. This scrip soon sold far below par and failed to remedy in the slightest the prevailing distress.

In 1832 the Pottawattamies had ceded their lands in the State to the Government, but when the time came for them to remove west of the Mississippi River, they refused to go.

and became very troublesome. The militia was ordered out, and under command of General John Tipton, forced the refractory redskins to leave the State. The same year the Miamis ceded their lands and agreed to remove after three years. Governor Wallace was the first Governor of Indiana to appoint a day of thanksgiving.

When Governor Bigger entered upon the discharge of his office he found a woeful state of affairs. The public works had been abandoned, the State was out of money, the interest on the debt was due and no money with which to meet it. By this time the State debt amounted to more than \$18,000,000. The interest on this was defaulted and the credit of the State went down. Before closing this mention of the administration of Governor Bigger, which was unsuccessful from the very beginning, the Legislature proving wholly unable to contend with the tide of disaster, it should be noted that the Governor, under the authority of the Legislature, compiled the general statutes of the State, and did it in such a satisfactory manner that the work was accepted by the General Assembly without question.

The administration of Governor James Whitcomb, extending from December, 1843, to December, 1849, witnessed a change for the better in the affairs of the State. Governor Whitcomb, before his elevation to the office, had opposed the system of internal improvements, and when he began his administration he found the State treasury practically bankrupt and the interest on the debt four years in arrears. The debt was too great for the State to bear. It was one that would have impoverished a much older and wealthier commonwealth, and Governor Whitcomb saw that the only hope for the State was in effecting a compromise of some kind with the creditors. The bonds of the State were mainly

held in London, and negotiations were opened to see if some satisfactory arrangement could not be reached. Finally a settlement was agreed upon. The State transferred to its creditors the Wabash and Erie canal, together with the remaining lands granted by the General Government to aid in its construction, in discharge of one-half of the State's indebtedness, and new bonds, bearing a lower rate of interest were issued for the remaining half, the State pledging its faith that the interest on the new bonds should be promptly met. To this end it was agreed the State should maintain in the city of New York an agent whose duty it should be to pay the interest as it became due. From that time Indiana never failed to meet her obligations. The debt has long since been altogether discharged.

This restoration of the State's credit brought prosperity again to the State and the people. Confidence was restored, and money once more became active. Manufactures began to appear in the State and the farmers were unusually prosperous. In 1846 the Mexican war called for volunteers and Governor Whitcomb gave his energies to filling the quota of Indiana. Governor Whitcomb was a man of very positive convictions, and during his administration became involved in a controversy with the Senate, that for awhile promised to destroy some of his popularity. It was over the appointment of Judges of the Supreme Court, the details of which are given in another chapter.

The administration of Governor Joseph A. Wright was one of the most eventful in the history of the State, and lasted seven years, from 1849 to 1856—three years under the old constitution and four under the new. When he succeeded Governor Whitcomb the State was rapidly recovering from the business depression which followed the col-



PARIS C. DUNNING.



ASHBEL P. WILLARD.



JOSEPH A. WRIGHT.



ABRAM A. HAMMOND.



HENRY S. LANE.

lapse of the internal improvements. Most of the works which had been begun by the State were being completed under private corporations; plank and turnpike roads were being constructed in many parts of the State, and railroad building was being pushed with great vigor. Energy was displayed in every direction, and hope once more made the people buoyant. Never before had the prospects been as bright as they were just then. The people of the State voted for the holding of a convention to revise the constitution, and it began its work in 1850. It was composed of able men, but of many conflicting opinions. The session of the Legislature which followed this convention was the longest in the history of the State, and one of the most important. The Governor had two notable contests with the General Assembly. The first was over the passage of a general banking law, and the other over chartering the Bank of the State. He was opposed to banks, and vetoed both bills, but they were passed over his veto and became laws. He endeavored to prevent their execution by appealing to the courts, but was defeated.

One of the most important acts of the first legislature was that for the promotion of education. It entirely revolutionized the system. It abolished the congressional townships and declared each civil township a township for school purposes, and gave the trustees thereof full control of educational matters in the township. It created a State Board of Education and authorized townships and incorporated cities to levy taxes for the support of schools. A commission was appointed to codify the laws and bring the statutes into harmony with the new constitution.

Among the other things which tended to make the ad-

ministration of Governor Wright eventful, was the temperance legislation. From the days of the Territorial Government there had been more or less legislation on the temperance question. The first act on the subject was passed in 1807. For some years there was not much agitation of the subject, but as the State filled up with people it became of more vital importance. The attempt was made to handle it as a purely local question, one law being enacted for one County, or one Township, and another for other sections of the State. The laws, however, were uniformly in restraint of the traffic. The whole tenor of public sentiment seemed to be in favor of what in later times has been termed "local option." As an illustration of how legislation was done in those days the following laws enacted in the single session of the Legislature in 1850 are given:

By an act approved January 19, it was provided that in Tippecanoe County an applicant for license to sell should be required to give bond to keep an orderly house and not to sell to minors under the age of 18.

By an act approved January 21, the laws requiring a license in Hancock County were repealed.

By an act approved January 19, it was provided that any person selling without license in Decatur, Ripley, Jefferson, Dearborn, Henry, Union, Parke, Whitley, and Huntington Counties, should be indicted, and the act of 1849 requiring a vote on the license question was extended to Morgan County.

By an act approved January 21, it was provided that in Parke, Monroe, and Brown Counties the question of license should be submitted to a vote, and that no license should be granted in any township in which the majority of votes was against that proposition.

By an act approved January 21, a former act requiring a vote to be taken in Huntington County was repealed.

By an act approved January 21, the sale was prohibited within two miles of the postoffice in the town of Plainfield.

By an act approved January 17, the sale was forbidden in Mound township, Warren County, without procuring a tavern or grocery license.

By an act approved January 18, the town of Lewisville was authorized to pass an ordinance to effectually prevent the sale of liquors within the corporation.

By an act approved January 19, it was made unlawful to grant a license in the Counties of Gibson and Parke unless the majority of the voters thereof assented thereto at the August election.

By an act approved January 21, it was made unlawful to sell in quantities less than thirty gallons in Jackson and Monroe townships, Madison County.

By an act approved January 19, no license could be granted in Kosciusko County unless a majority of the voters should so declare at an election, and when such license was granted the applicant should give a bond in the sum of \$1,000 conditioned to pay all damages the community or individuals might sustain from the traffic; to support all paupers, widows and orphans, made by the traffic, and to pay the expenses of civil and criminal prosecutions growing out of, or justly attributable to the traffic.

By an act approved January 21, it was made unlawful to sell in less quantities than 30 gallons in Blue River township, Jackson County.

By an act approved January 11, the sale was absolutely forbidden in Ripley township, Rush County.

By an act approved January 21, the law prohibiting the

sale in Wayne township, Henry County, was repealed and the question of license was to be submitted to a vote of the people.

It will be seen that there was neither uniformity nor stability in the laws during those days. One session of the General Assembly would prohibit the sale of intoxicants in some locality and the next session would take away the restriction. In 1853 a general law was enacted, but the local option feature was still predominant.

By this time a wave of temperance excitement was sweeping over the country. Maine had passed a law positively prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicants in the State, and the prohibition fever was rising rapidly in all the other States. In Indiana the Democrats in their convention declared against prohibition. This was like a match to a vast pile of very inflammable material. About the same time the courts decided a case that was fatal to the law of 1853. At once temperance orators sprung up everywhere. The pulpit, with singular unanimity, joined in the crusade. The Know Nothing party, which had come into existence on the death of the Whig party, was at that time making some stir. The renewal of the slavery agitation in Congress had also operated to re-cast party lines in the State. A convention was called of all the elements opposed to the Democratic party. It was composed of old Whigs, Know Nothings, Free Soil Democrats and active temperance advocates. It declared in favor of prohibition. On that issue the two parties went into the campaign, the prohibitionists winning, electing their State ticket, and a majority in both branches of the Legislature. The result was the enactment of a prohibitory law. Governor Wright, though a Democrat, approved the law, and it went into effect. Its operation was peculiar. In some

localities it was peacefully enforced, while in Indianapolis, and some of the other cities, it caused numerous riots, and conflicts between the police and the opponents of the law. Finally one of the Judges of the Supreme Court held the law unconstitutional, and the fabric fell. This decision only intensified the excitement for awhile, but in the campaign of the next year, the temperance question was measurably lost in the election of a President, it being the first campaign where one of the great parties stood directly opposed to slavery.

Governor Wright's term witnessed the death of the old Whig party, the birth and death of the Know Nothings, and the birth of the Republican party. It also witnessed several memorable contests on the slavery question. One or two of them at least are worthy of mention as showing the spirit of the times. The first was that of Miss Delia Webster. Miss Webster was a resident of Kentucky, and had served a term in the Kentucky penitentiary for inducing slaves to escape. On her release from prison she took up her residence in Kentucky, opposite the city of Madison. A number of slaves soon after escaped and she was indicted for assisting them. Before the warrants were served she escaped across the Ohio River to Madison. There she was arrested on a requisition given by the Governor. Before she could be conveyed across the river a writ of habeas corpus was asked for. Hon. Joseph G. Marshall appeared as her attorney, and by his eloquence so wrought upon the feelings of the people that they mobbed the Kentucky officers and drove them from the court house, they only saving their lives by rapid flight. The case caused intense excitement throughout the entire State, as well as in Kentucky. In the latter State armed bodies of men were raised with the avowed

purpose of invading Indiana, but better counsels prevailed.

The other case was that of John Freeman, a colored man who had long been a resident of Indianapolis. A man by the name of Ellington, a resident of Missouri, laid claim to Freeman as his slave who had escaped from Kentucky. Freeman was arrested, but declared he was free, and had always been so; that he was born in Georgia, and from that State had come to Indiana, and that if permitted he could establish by overwhelming testimony that he was free. The anti-slavery element in Indianapolis rallied around him, and the case was fought for weeks in the courts. Men were sent to Georgia and brought back citizens of that State who identified Freeman, and who testified that they had known him from a boy. Others went to Kentucky, and from there traced the fugitive slave to Canada, and found him living in that country. For weeks Indianapolis was in a fever of excitement, and armed men patrolled the streets near the jail to prevent Freeman from being carried away surreptitiously. At last the grand jury at Indianapolis returned an indictment against Ellington, charging him with perjury in swearing that Freeman was his slave. Ellington fled the State and Freeman was released. During the weeks that the case dragged along, the people of the entire State watched its course with the same eagerness with which a few years later they watched for the outcome of the John Brown raid on Harper's Ferry.

Governor Wright was succeeded by Ashbel P. Willard, the youngest man ever elected Governor of Indiana. His administration was not so eventful as that of his predecessor, yet it was a period of the most intense political excitement. The first session of the General Assembly was rather an unruly one. The overthrow of the Missouri Com-

promise, and the struggle that was going on in Kansas, had wrought parties up to the highest pitch. Quite a number of those who had been prominent among the leaders of the Democracy had severed their connection with that party on the slavery issue, while an equal number of the leaders of the old Whig party had cast in their fortunes with their ancient enemies. The fugitive slave law was a bone of contention, and the threats of the South to secede were already being heard. Signs were becoming definitely marked of a division in the Democratic party, between the followers of the administration and the adherents of Mr. Douglas. The legislative session was a stormy one, and finally ended without passing the appropriation bills to defray the expenses of the State Government. Through this means the State defaulted the interest on its debt, or would have defaulted, had it not been for the prompt and patriotic action of Governor Willard. He reached the conclusion that no direct appropriation was necessary to pay the interest on the public debt; that the law providing for the settlement with the creditors made it incumbent on the State to pay that interest, and was, in fact, a perpetual appropriation. In an address to the people of the State issued a few days after the adjournment of the Legislature he foreshadowed his action in the following paragraph:

“By laws which were passed by previous legislatures, provision is made for sustaining every department of the Government excepting the Benevolent institutions. The tax is levied for the support of the common schools and two cents on each one hundred dollars for the purpose of paying the principal of the public debt. As long as there is money in the Treasury belonging to the State, it is believed that there is authority to pay the interest on said debt. * * *

Again, on the 19th day of January, 1846, the Legislature passed an act to provide for the funded debt of the State, in which your faith was solemnly pledged for the payment of the interest on the said debt, and on the 27th of January, 1847, another act of the Legislature was passed repeating the obligation given in the previous year to the creditors of Indiana. Ever since these acts were passed the State has maintained her faith and credit, the result of which has been to encourage the introduction of population and capital into the State."

Hon. Joseph E. McDonald was the Attorney General of the State, and he gave an opinion in which he held that no direct appropriation was necessary to authorize the payment of the interest; that the contract with the bondholders was a sufficient appropriation. In fact, from the time of the settlement of the debt with the bondholders, in 1846, the custom of the State officers had been to pay the interest without an appropriation, except in 1849, 1850, and 1851 when it was found necessary to borrow the money to meet the interest charges. In his address to the people, Governor Willard complained of the Legislature that it had failed to levy a tax with which to pay the interest. He was confronted with another problem. He believed he had a right to pay the interest without a direct appropriation, but there was no money in the treasury that could be used for that purpose. He did not hesitate or falter, but promptly borrowed the money necessary, pledging the honor of the State to reimburse the lender. He took the matter before the next Legislature, and there, after considerable discussion as to his right to borrow the money, his action was endorsed. No one questioned his right to pay the interest without an appropriation, but doubted the right to borrow money, without prior legislative action.

His troubles did not end there. The Legislature of 1857 also failed to make appropriations for the maintenance of the benevolent institutions. The faith of the State was not directly pledged to their support. The money was in the treasury, but without a direct appropriation it could not be used. After considering the matter in every light the Governor reached the conclusion that he could not incur debts on the part of the State for their maintenance, and he reluctantly ordered them to be closed. He waited until 1858, giving time for the heated political passions to cool, and then called the Legislature together in special session, and once more the administration was furnished with the means to maintain itself.

The raid of John Brown, on Harper's Ferry intensified the political feeling in the State. The split between President Buchanan and Senator Douglas became wider than ever. In this State the Illinois Senator was decidedly the favorite, but the President had many adherents, the leaders being the two United States Senators—Bright and Fitch. Senator Fitch became involved in Washington, in a personal controversy with Senator Douglas, that came near ending in a hostile meeting according to the code. The meeting was prevented only by the interference of mutual friends. When elected, Governor Willard's physical health was poor, and before the expiration of his term of office, gave way entirely. In 1860 he went to Minnesota, hoping the bracing atmosphere of that section would benefit him, but he died at St. Paul, on October 3d, being the first Governor of the State to die in office. During the administration of both Governor Wright and Governor Willard the State experienced remarkable prosperity, with the exception of the financial troubles brought on by the free banking system. Railroad

building progressed rapidly, manufacturing industries were opened and the commerce of the State was widely extended.

The war clouds were gathering when Governor Willard died. Hon. Henry S. Lane, who had been elected to succeed him only served as Governor three days, when he resigned on being elected to the United States Senate. Lieutenant Governor Oliver P. Morton became acting Governor, and became the best known of all the Indiana Executives. The war clouds were then gathering very thickly, and within a few weeks the storm burst. Governor Morton, however, before the war came, had set about working some needed reforms in the administration of affairs. There had been for some years growing scandals in the management of the benevolent institutions, especially the Blind Institute. Governor Morton called the attention of the Legislature to these and other abuses, and urged that reform should be inaugurated in every department of the State Government. Neither he nor the Legislature had time to work out any great measure of reform before the outbreak of the war, and that, when it came, demanded all their powers, all their resources and energies. What Indiana did during the war is detailed in another chapter, and needs only be referred to here as it had connection with the civil administration. Between the majority of the Legislature and the Chief Executive of the State there was perfect harmony, during the years 1861 and 1862. The work of one was supplemented by that of the other. The Legislature provided the funds with a liberal hand, and the Governor put forth extraordinary efforts in organizing, equipping and forwarding Indiana's quota of troops. The Legislature also provided for the organization and equipment of a strong force of militia for State defense.

During the regular session of the Legislature in 1861 a

good deal of angry feeling among the members was displayed, owing to the heated political condition of the public mind. In the special session, which was called just after the bombardment of Fort Sumter, this feeling was subdued at first, but before the session closed, it broke out with greater bitterness than ever, and several disgraceful scenes followed, one or two of which came near leading to hostile meetings between the participants. As a rule, however, the members were very favorably disposed to grant the Governor all the power necessary for a vigorous effort to support the National Government. Arrangements were made for effecting a large loan in New York, and for supplying the treasury with ample funds from other sources. At that time the war fever was at its height in the State, and Indiana at once stepped into the foremost ranks of the loyal States in furnishing men and supplies. Governor Morton displayed wonderful executive ability, and before the end of the first three months' campaign the name of Indiana became honored throughout the Nation.

It was not until the meeting of the General Assembly in 1863 that serious trouble began, and the administration of Governor Morton met its first decided opposition. During the years 1861 and 1862 the war had not been very favorable to the Union cause, while the burdens on the people kept getting heavier and heavier. In Indiana, as well as in nearly all the other loyal States, there had grown up a great dissatisfaction with the war. In Indiana, much of this opposition was engendered from the fact that a large portion of its citizens were of Southern birth or descent, and they naturally sympathized with that section, especially as to the question of slavery. This feeling made itself felt during the political campaign of 1862, and when the election was held,

it resulted in a victory for the Democratic party, that party electing the State officers and a majority in both branches of the Legislature. In the Legislature were quite a number of men who were very hostile to the further continuance of the war, and, unfortunately for the good name of the State, every question which came up was given a party bias, consequently some who were in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the war found themselves compelled to cast votes in opposition, or break away from party lines. The break came at the very opening of the session. The custom had always been for the two Houses to meet in joint convention at 2 o'clock on the second day of the session to receive the message of the Governor. The two Houses promptly organized on the first day of the session, electing their officers, and appointing a committee to wait upon the Governor and inform him of their organization, and ask him if he had any communication to make, and what time would be convenient to him. He replied that he would be prepared to deliver his message on the next day, at any hour the General Assembly might fix. The hour of 2 o'clock was designated.

At that hour the Governor was ready to meet the Legislature and deliver his message, but the House informed him that a quorum of the Senate was not present, and that consequently no joint convention could be held, further stating that the House did not know when the General Assembly could receive the message. On receipt of this information the Governor sent, by his private Secretary, printed copies of the message to the two Houses, separately. Both Houses were apparently in session, the presiding officers being in their seats, and business being transacted. The House refused to receive the message, returning it to the Governor, on the next day, accompanied by the following resolution:



CONRAD BAKER.



JAMES D. WILLIAMS.



ALBERT G. PORTER.



ISAAC P. GRAY.

“Resolved, As there was no Senate in session, and no General Assembly to receive such address as contemplated by the constitution, that this House refuse to receive the message of His Excellency the Governor, communicated to it yesterday, and that the same be respectfully returned to him, to await the further action of this General Assembly.”

There was neither a constitutional provision nor law directing in what manner the Governor should deliver his communications to the Legislature, but it had been the custom, from the organization of the State Government, for him to deliver his biennial message in person to the two Houses met in joint session, but at all other times his messages were delivered by his private secretary, and it frequently happened that such messages were delivered to one House at a time when the other House was not in session. Under the constitution the Governor can choose his own time and method of delivering his communications. Nor was it necessary for a quorum of each House to be present to receive his message in joint session, so the action on the second day of the session was not only a breach of courtesy on the part of the House, but the excuse given for it was trivial. The refusal to receive the printed message was likewise a grave breach of courtesy, and a direct violation of the constitution. On the 15th of January the House passed a resolution asking the Governor to re-submit his message. To this the Governor replied, that having delivered his message, in a proper and respectful, as well as legal manner, and it having been returned to him, he had no further communication to make at that time. The whole course of the Legislature in this matter was perfectly indefensible, and demonstrates to what extremes partisan malice will lead men.

But little real legislation was perfected, the time of the Legislature being mostly taken up in party wrangles. Scenes of turbulence and disorder were witnessed every day. Finally the Legislature split to pieces and was left without a quorum in either House. The cause of this was the introduction and attempted passage of a bill to take the command of the militia out of the hands of the Governor. The constitution makes him the commander-in-chief of the militia of the State, but the bill proposed in the Legislature took all authority over the militia out of his hands, and placed it in the hands of a Board of State Officers, the said officers being Democratic. The Republicans in the Legislature resisted this proposed bill with great vehemence, and urged that the necessary appropriation bills be passed. The friends of the new measure declared that they would consider no appropriation bills until the militia bill was passed. On this the Republican members of the Legislature retired in a body, and went to Madison, Indiana, where they remained until the expiration of the session. The constitution requires that two-thirds of all the members elected must be present in either House to constitute a quorum for the transaction of business. The Democrats did not have this number, and all legislative business was at a standstill.

This adjournment, without passing the appropriation bills, left Governor Morton in the same condition in which Governor Willard was left in 1857. No money had been appropriated to carry on the ordinary affairs of the Government, maintain the benevolent institutions, or pay the interest on the public debt. There was this difference, however, in the days of Governor Willard the State treasury did not have the money to pay the interest, while in 1863 the treasury was full. Governor Willard held that it did not require

an appropriation to pay the interest, and in that decision he was sustained by the State officers, but he technically violated the law when he borrowed the money for that purpose, without the authority of the Legislature. In 1859, the Legislature, to provide for just such a contingency, should it ever arise again, enacted a law making it the duty of the State Treasurer to remit to New York, from time to time, the money necessary to meet the interest charges. Governor Morton submitted the question to the Attorney General, holding that it was the duty of the Treasurer to pay the interest without further legislation. The Attorney General took a different view of the matter from that taken by his predecessor in 1857, and held that the Treasurer had no such authority. Governor Morton, in presenting the question, used the following language: "The State makes her written promise to pay at particular times, and delivers it to her creditor, which upon presentation to the proper officer is a direct authority for payment. If it is not, then the promise of the State carries with it no obligation, and the authority to pay must be derived solely from subsequent legislation." No one has ever seriously questioned the correctness of the conclusions of Governors Willard and Morton.

Governor Morton promptly and energetically set about the work of securing the money with which to pay the interest, and to defray the expenses of the State government. From various counties, and from bankers in Indiana, he secured loans with which to operate the government; from a banking firm in New York, the money with which to meet the interest on the public debt, and from the Secretary of War funds for military use. These loans were all promptly repaid by the Legislature of 1865, but it cost the State many thousands of dollars in the way of interest on the money thus borrowed.

By the time the Legislature met in January, 1865, the fact that the end of the war was very near was patent to all, and Governor Morton, in his message, turned his attention to the internal affairs of the State. In 1862 Congress had given to the various loyal States a large amount of public lands for the endowment of agricultural colleges. The Indiana Legislature of 1863 failed to signify the acceptance of the State of the grant made to her, but this was promptly done by the Legislature of 1865, and steps were taken to utilize it. After the overthrow of the school law by the courts in 1858, little or no legislation in behalf of the common schools had been enacted. Soon after the adjournment of the regular session of the General Assembly in 1865, Governor Morton was stricken with paralysis, and after treatment in this country for awhile, he determined to go to Europe. He called the Legislature together in special session in November of that year, and turned the administration of affairs over to Lieutenant Governor Conrad Baker. At that session the Legislature actively took hold of educational work, and established a State Normal School at Terre Haute, and materially increased the tax levy for school purposes.

Immediately upon the assembling of the Legislature in 1867, that body elected Governor Morton United States Senator, and Lieutenant Governor Baker acted as Governor for the remainder of the term, and was then elected to that office in 1868. Governor Baker had rather a stormy administration, arising from many causes. As the active administration of Governor Morton had been that of the turmoil of war, so that of Governor Baker was during the strife over reconstruction. It was a notable period in the history of the nation, and as the question was one which divided

political parties and engendered political strife, it was also a notable period in the history of some of the States, and was especially so in Indiana, where parties were so nearly equally divided. The amendment to the federal constitution abolishing slavery had been ratified by the General Assembly, February 13, 1865, without much opposition, but when the fourteenth amendment, giving to the colored people the rights of citizenship, came before the Legislature it aroused considerable opposition. The resolution ratifying this amendment was introduced early in the session of 1867, and was promptly referred to a committee. Two reports were made by the committee, one in favor of ratification and the other against. When the reports reached a vote, that for ratification was adopted, but not without a struggle.

A number of very important acts were passed by the Legislature of 1867. One making an appropriation for the building of the Normal School at Terre Haute; another for the erection of a Soldiers' Home; another for the establishment of a House of Refuge for juvenile offenders. One of the most important acts of this session was one to reform the election laws. It required a registration of voters prior to each election, but was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and although the constitution was afterwards amended so as to require a registration, no law for that purpose has since been enacted. The session of 1867 was one of the best the State has had, nearly all the laws enacted by it being in the line of reform. During this part of Governor Baker's administration the attempted impeachment of President Johnson, by Congress took place. The struggle between the President and Congress over the reconstruction methods had caused a recasting of party lines to some extent. Many of the Democrats who had operated with the

Republicans during the war, went back to their old party when Congress undertook its reconstruction policy. Quite a number of original Republicans left their party on the same issue and co-operated with the Democrats. During the struggle President Johnson accompanied by some members of his cabinet, and by General Grant and Admiral Faragut, made a tour through some of the States. He visited Indianapolis, September 10, 1866. He attempted to speak and a riot was precipitated in which several persons were wounded by pistol shots. It was some time before the rioting ceased, and so great was the alarm for the President's safety that his room was guarded during the night by a file of soldiers from the arsenal.

This indignity to the President aroused great indignation throughout the State and the country. It was condemned by all law-abiding citizens of every party. It added to the bitterness already dividing political parties, and its influence was felt at the election which took place a month later. The political contest of 1868 was characterized by more than the usual party bitterness. The Democrats nominated as their candidate for Governor, Hon. Thomas A. Hendricks, who was then serving a term as United States Senator, and the Republicans nominated acting Governor Baker. Four years before Governor Morton had been elected by a majority of more than 20,000, but Governor Baker had less than one thousand over Mr. Hendricks. The year 1868 was also made memorable by an outbreak of Lynch law. The close of the war had left its mark by a decided increase in lawlessness in several parts of the State. A series of daring robberies occurred in several of the Counties in the southern part of the State, and although suspected persons were arrested convictions had not taken

place. On the 22d of May, 1868, a train was robbed near Seymour, the express car, being broken open and the contents of the safe taken. It caused great excitement, this being the first robbery of a railroad train occurring in the United States. It was a new thing in crime, and for awhile it filled the public mind. It was not long before the robbers were arrested. They were kept in custody at Cincinnati for several weeks, as threats of lynching had been freely indulged in. On July 20, they were started for Brownstown, the County seat of Jackson County, to be placed on trial. At Seymour an armed body of men boarded the train, took the prisoners and hanged them. The following notice was then posted and circulated throughout the County:

ATTENTION, THIEVES!

"The attention of all thieves, robbers, assassins and vagrants, together with their aiders, abettors, and sympathizers, is called to the doings of the Seymour Vigilance Committee last night. We are determined to follow this up until all of the classes above named, whether imported or to the 'manor born,' are driven forever from our midst. Threats have been made of retaliation in case we should resort to capital punishment. In answer we say, should one of our committee be harmed, or a dollar's worth of any honest man's property destroyed by persons unknown, we will swing by the neck until they are dead, every thieving character we can lay our hands on, without inquiry whether we have the persons who committed that particular crime or not. This applies not only to Seymour, but along the line of the two roads, and wherever our organization exists. Law and order must prevail.

"BY ORDER OF THE COMMITTEE.

"Seymour, Ind., July 21, 1868."

This was pretty effective in clearing that section of criminals, but before the railroad robbery was fully atoned for, four more of the participators were lynched. These men had escaped at the time their associates had been arrested, but they were afterward captured in Canada. They were taken to New Albany, for safe keeping, and on the night of the 12th of December, the Vigilance Committee of Seymour, visited New Albany, took the prisoners from their cells and hanged them in the corridor of the jail.

The session of the Legislature of 1869 was a very turbulent one. The Republicans had a majority in each House, but not enough to make a quorum in either. Even the Republicans were not harmonious, and split into factions over the election of a United States Senator to succeed Mr. Hendricks. The details of this split are given in another chapter. Congress had passed the fifteenth amendment to the constitution, giving the right of suffrage to the negroes. It came up for ratification early in the session of the Legislature, and was bitterly opposed by the Democratic minority. They threatened to resign in a body, if the attempt to ratify the amendment should be urged. The Republicans determined to force the issue, and on the 4th of March, the Democrats carried out their threats, seventeen Senators and thirty-six Representatives resigning. This left the General Assembly without a quorum. No appropriation bills had been passed, and Governor Baker at once issued writs for special elections to fill the vacancies caused by the resignations, and called a special session of the Legislature to meet on April 8. It met and the same scenes were re-enacted. Before the new members would take the oath of office, they forced the Republicans to agree that the necessary appropriation bills should be passed before any at-

tempf should be made to ratify the amendment. The bills were passed together with much other important legislation. Among the bills passed was one to establish a female prison and reformatory, and another fixed the site of the Agricultural College at Lafayette. When these measures were out of the way the Republicans again brought forward the ratification resolution. In anticipation of this the Democratic members had filed their resignations with the Governor, but he had not reported them to the two Houses.

Senator Morton had come on from Washington, and had taken the direction of affairs. The Democrats had handed their resignations to the Governor on the night of the 18th of May. The next morning the Senators who had resigned were in their seats in the chamber, preparing to leave, when the Republicans suddenly sprung the resolution, the doors of the Senate chamber having been locked. In vain the Democratic Senators contended that they had resigned; the presiding officer declared he had not been notified of that fact, and as the Senators had been found in their seats, it was to be supposed they were legally present. The Democrats refused to vote, but they were counted as being present and the President of the Senate declared the resolution adopted. In the meantime the alarm had spread to the House, and the members who had resigned, hastily vacated the hall. There no quorum was present when the vote was taken, but the Speaker ruled that a quorum of the de facto members was present, and that was sufficient. Indiana was put down as one of the States ratifying the amendment. The Republicans were not through with the troublesome matter, however, for two years later, the Democrats, having a majority in the Legislature, undertook to rescind the purported ratification. The Democrats caught the Republicans

in the Senate, and passed the rescinding resolution by a vote of twenty-six to twenty, but before it could be taken up in the House, thirty-four Republican members of that body resigned, leaving the House without a quorum.

There was not much important legislation transacted by the session of 1871. The most important was the adoption of an amendment to the State constitution, forbidding the Legislature at any time assuming any part of the debt settled by the compromise which followed the breaking down of the internal improvement system. The divorce laws of the State which had long been a reproach were materially changed. In 1872 Hon. Thomas A. Hendricks was nominated for the third time for Governor, by the Democrats, and was elected, defeating Gen. Thomas A. Browne. With the exception of Superintendent of Public Instruction, the election otherwise resulted in favor of the Republicans, their candidates on the State ticket being elected, together with a majority of the members of the Legislature. Governor Baker called a special session to meet November 14. In his message he called special attention to the meagerness of the salary allowed the Governor, it being only \$3,000. The constitution provides that the salary of the Governor cannot be increased or diminished during his term of office. Some years before, the Legislature, realizing that the salary was insufficient, had sought to increase it by indirect means, by allowing \$5,000 a year for house rent. Governor Baker held that he could only take, of this fund, the actual amount paid for house rent, and he urged the Legislature to determine the Governor's salary before his successor should come into office, that he might get the benefit of it. A bill fixing the salary at \$8,000 was promptly introduced and passed. It was afterward reduced to \$6,000, and then again to \$5,000,

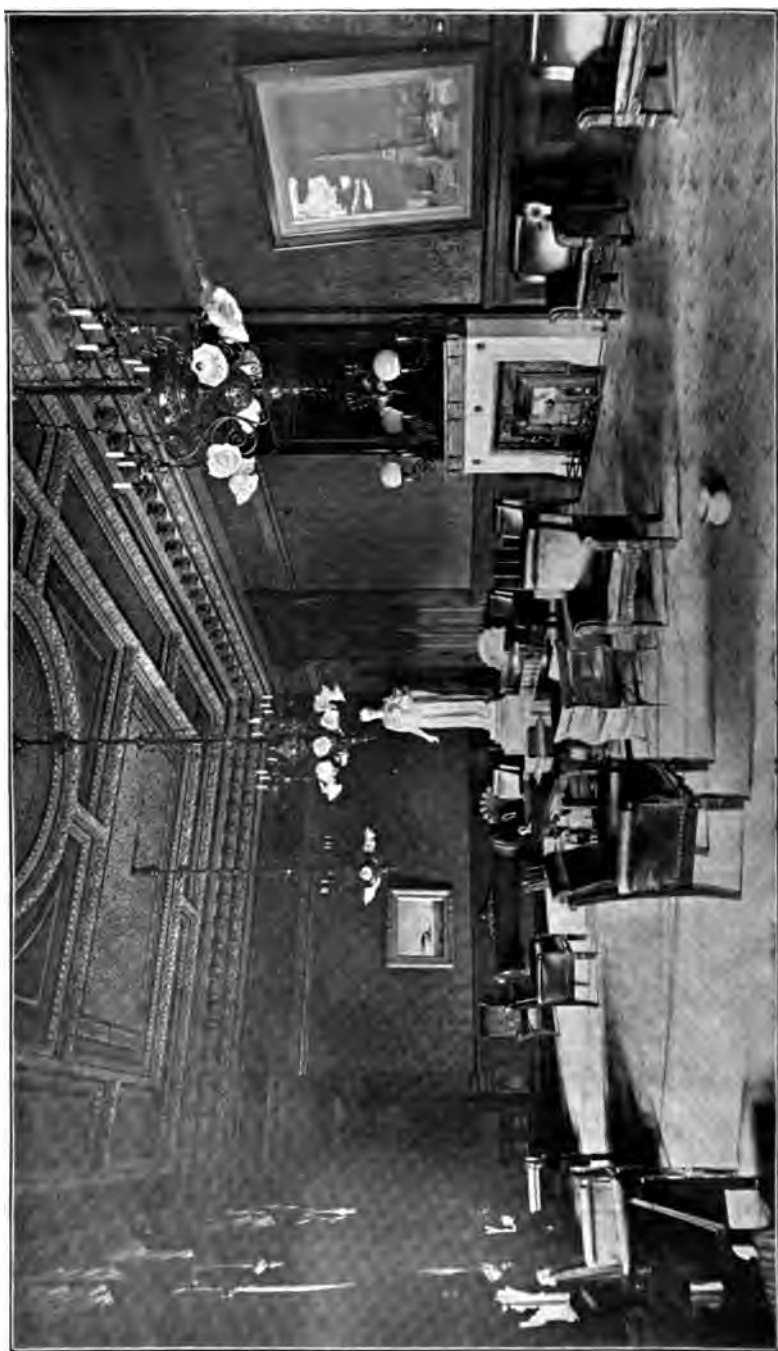
at which figure it now stands with an allowance of \$600 for house rent.

Notwithstanding the great financial panic which swept over the country from 1873 to 1878, the administration of Governor Hendricks was a very successful one, and one of moderate prosperity to the State. Labor troubles several times came near causing serious outbreaks, but the firmness and conciliatory attitude of Governor Hendricks prevented any great damage to property in the State. The first trouble came in January, 1874. On the first day of that year the engineers and firemen on the Pennsylvania system of railroads, throughout the country, went upon a strike. At first the strikers were quiet and peaceable, but soon mobs gathered in several of the cities, and violent demonstrations were made. The greatest violence occurred at Logansport, in Cass County, and to that place the Governor promptly ordered a company or two of militia. Rioting lasted for several days, but no property was destroyed, nor was any blood shed. The strike of the railroad men was followed, in March of the same year, by one among the miners in Clay County. The militia was again sent to the scene of disturbance, and quiet was speedily restored.

For some years the temperance excitement had been increasing in the State. Since the failure of the prohibitory law of 1855 there had been but little done in restraint of the traffic. A general law on the subject had been enacted, requiring retail dealers to procure a license, and forbidding the sale of intoxicants on certain days. In some Counties the law had been fairly enforced, while in others but little attention was paid to it, either as to the taking out of a license, or of refraining from selling on the forbidden days. The workers in the cause of temperance had for some time

been agitating the matter, and when the General Assembly met in 1873, a majority of the members were in favor of a stringent law restraining the traffic. A bill, afterward known as the "Baxter Law," was introduced. In both House and Senate it received almost the unanimous support of the Republicans, and quite a number of Democrats voted for it. It was promptly approved by Governor Hendricks, he holding that it was not hasty legislation in any sense, but had been carefully considered, and was the deliberate judgment of the Legislature, and as it was clearly constitutional, he felt called upon to approve it. It proved to be the agitating feature during the next political campaign. In fact it was about the only question in issue, and the Democrats elected a majority of the Representatives, while the Independents, or Grangers, held the balance of power in the Senate.

The law was repealed, but nothing was put in its place. The regular session of the Legislature in 1875 was a failure, so far as any practical good to the State was concerned. The session was frittered away and ended, passing but few of the important bills before it. Governor Hendricks promptly called a special session, and in his message read the members a lecture that created a good deal of excitement. Among other things he told them they had failed in discharging their sworn duty, and that as he had called them together before they had left the capital, they were not entitled to receive any mileage, and that he had given instructions to the Auditor of State not to pay any. Resolutions of censure were introduced into both Houses, but never reached a vote. Smarting under the message the General Assembly promptly passed the appropriation, tax and temperance bills and adjourned within five days. It



GOVERNOR'S PARLOR, STATE HOUSE.

was under the administration of Governor Hendricks that the first definite steps toward erecting a new State House were taken.

The political campaign of 1876 was one of great excitement. Governor Hendricks was the Democratic candidate for Vice President, which added much to the interest in this State. The opposing candidates for Governor were James D. Williams, Democrat, and Godlove S. Orth, Republican. Mr. Orth had served several terms in Congress, and at the time of his nomination, was United States Minister at Vienna. Mr. Williams was a farmer, who for more than a quarter of a century had served in one branch or the other of the General Assembly, and in 1874 had been elected to Congress. During the campaign some charges were made against Mr. Orth, in connection with some Venezuela claims against the United States. A subsequent Congressional investigation completely exonerated him from any improper connection with the claims, but the charges were of such a character as to induce his withdrawal from the ticket, and a few weeks before the election, General Benjamin Harrison was placed at the head of the Republican ticket. Mr. Williams was a farmer, and usually wore a suit of blue jeans, and his political opponents gave him the name of "Blue Jeans," which was quickly adopted by his friends. The election in the State resulted in favor of the Democrats, that party electing its full State ticket and a majority in the Senate, the Republicans controlling the House.

The regular session of the General Assembly, in 1877 was a turbulent one, and did but little worthy of comment. The most important act passed was one to erect a new State House. As had grown to be the custom, the Legislature failed to pass the appropriation bills, and a special session had to be called.

In July, 1877, another great strike of railroad employes took place, the strike extending from the Missouri River to the Atlantic seaboard. Scenes of turbulence and violence occurred in almost every section of the country. In Indiana, Indianapolis was the center of the turbulence. For several days great disorder prevailed. Governor Williams was asked to order out the militia but declined to do so. The citizens of Indianapolis organized several companies to protect property, under the direction of a committee of the citizens. For awhile the running of trains was stopped in almost every section of the State, but order was restored without violence or bloodshed.

At the session of the General Assembly in 1877 several amendments to the constitution were proposed. The amendments were as follows:

First—Requiring every voter to be registered, and to have resided in the State six months, in the County sixty days, and in the precinct thirty days preceding an election to entitle him to a vote.

Second—Striking from Section 5, Article II., the words, "No negro or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage."

Third—Providing that all general elections shall be held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday, in November, township elections to be held at such times as may be provided by law, and authorizing the General Assembly to provide for the election of Judges of courts having general or appellate jurisdiction at a time when no other office shall be voted for.

Fourth—Striking out the word "white," from the constitution.

Fifth—Authorizing the regulation of fees and salaries of County officers on the basis of population.

Sixth—Substitution of the words, “such other courts,” for the words, “such inferior courts,” in the seventh Article.

Seventh—Limiting the power of incurring debts by municipal corporations.

These amendments were again adopted by the General Assembly of 1879, and ordered to be submitted to the people for ratification at an election to be held on the first Monday of April, 1880. They were so submitted and voted upon, and received a majority of the votes cast for or against them, but a case being made before the Supreme Court, that body held that they had not received a majority of all the voters in the State, and therefore, had not been legally adopted. They were again submitted to the people in March, 1881, and finally adopted.

On the 1st of November, 1877, Senator Oliver P. Morton died at his home in Indianapolis. For twenty years he had been prominent in the political history of the State. He had been the Governor of Indiana during the war and had earned the title of the “Great War Governor.” At the time of his death he was serving his second term in the Senate, where he had been conspicuous as a leader, wielding more influence in that body than any other member. His death had not been unexpected, but it cast a gloom over the whole State, for all parties recognized his great abilities. Four days after his death his funeral occurred, and was the most imposing event of the kind that had ever occurred in the State. It was attended by members of the President’s cabinet, Senators, Members of Congress, distinguished military and naval officers, and a vast concourse of people. He had left his mark on Indiana more than any Chief Executive the State had ever had. Just one year before his death he had been a candidate for the nomination by his party for Presi-

dent, and it has always been believed that had it not been for the feeble state of his physical health would have been nominated.

Governor Williams died at Indianapolis, November 20, 1880, the unexpired portion of his term being filled by Lieutenant Governor Isaac P. Gray. The State election of 1880 was the last which took place in October, and resulted in favor of the Republicans, Hon. Albert G. Porter being elected Governor. The Republicans had a majority on joint ballot in the General Assembly, and elected General Benjamin Harrison to the United States Senate to succeed Hon. Joseph E. McDonald. It was during Governor Porter's term the struggle began between the Legislature and the Chief Executive over the appointments to office. At that time the Legislature had reserved to itself the election of the members of the prison boards, and of the State Librarian. When the office of State Geologist was created the Governor had been given the power to appoint, and had exercised that power without question. In 1881 a new office was created. A bureau of statistics was established, and the Governor was authorized to appoint its chief. In 1883 the Legislature was Democratic in both branches, and in the heat of partisan greed after office it legislated the Governor's appointees out of office and replaced them by men of their own choice. Thus commenced a struggle for office that proved to be a scandal before it ended. If the Governor and the Legislature happened to be of the same political party he would be permitted to fill certain offices, but if they were of a different political faith, all appointments would be taken out of his hands, and either assumed by the Legislature itself, or delegated to some one else. This constant legislating out one set of appointees, and legislating in

another brought the name of the State into disrepute everywhere.

The General Assembly at its session of 1881 adopted a joint resolution proposing an amendment to the constitution giving the Legislature the power to prohibit the manufacture and sale of ardent spirits. In 1855 such a law had been enacted, but had been declared unconstitutional. In 1873 the Baxter Law had been enacted, but had been promptly repealed by the next Legislature. This had occasioned a revival of the temperance feeling in the State and resulted in what became known as the crusade. This was followed by the "Blue Ribbon" movement. By 1880 the advocates of temperance were well organized and began circulating petitions asking for a constitutional amendment permitting the prohibition of the traffic. The petitions signed, it was said, by more than 200,000 citizens, were presented to the Legislature at its session in 1881. The proper steps were taken for the amendment, but it failed in the session of 1883. In 1881 the Legislature established the State Board of Health, and in 1883 ordered the building of three new hospitals for the insane. They were located at Richmond, Logansport and Evansville. The session of 1883 also introduced the system of Metropolitan Police Boards for the larger cities of the State. From time to time this system has been extended until it now applies to all cities having a population of 10,000 or more. The law was first aimed at Indianapolis alone, and the appointing power was given to a Board of State officers. It was afterward lodged in the Governor, then taken from him and given again to a Board of State officers, but the new charter of Indianapolis lodged the appointing power in the hands of the Mayor. After being tossed back and forth by succeeding Legisla-

tures the appointing power was once more given to the Governor for all cities in the State, with the exception of Indianapolis. It now remains with him.

In February, 1883, occurred the great floods in the Ohio and Wabash Rivers. This flood was the most destructive of property ever known in the history of the State. All the streams of the State overflowed their banks, sweeping away houses, fences and other property. The Legislature was in session and promptly appropriated \$100,000 for the relief of the sufferers. Large contributions from the citizens were also made. The Ohio and Wabash Rivers were miles wide in places, whole farms being submerged. Lawrenceburg, Madison, and other towns on the Ohio were inundated, and hundreds of families were rendered homeless.

The administration of Isaac P. Gray, who followed Governor Porter, was an exciting one. The first session of the General Assembly, under his administration, which met in January, 1885, passed a new law dividing the State into districts for the election of members of the General Assembly, which gave great offense to the opposing party. It was the parent of a prolific brood of such laws, all of which the Supreme Court finally overturned. The most exciting session, however, was that of 1887. The vacation of his office by Lieutenant Governor Manson, operated to spring upon the people an entirely new question—that of how a vacancy in the office of Lieutenant Governor should be filled. In accordance with a ruling of the Attorney General of the State, the Governor, by proclamation, called upon the people to elect such officer at the general election in 1886. All parties nominated candidates, and the election resulted in favor of the candidate of the Republicans, Colonel Robert S. Robertson. The Democrats had a majority in the Senate and they



ALVIN P. HOVEY.



IRA J. CHASE.



CLAUDE MATTHEWS.



JAMES A. MOUNT.

refused to recognize Colonel Robertson, or permit him to take his seat. The result was a series of tumultuous scenes in and around the State House. The House, being Republican, finally passed a resolution refusing to recognize the Senate, and legislation was brought to a stand still. But few laws were enacted. Among the laws, however, was one appropriating \$200,000 for the erection of a monument at Indianapolis to the soldiers and sailors of the State. A school for the feeble-minded children was located at Fort Wayne and a liberal appropriation was given, and provision was made for rebuilding the Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Knightstown, which had been destroyed by fire. Before the dead-lock between the two houses came, Hon. David Turpie had been elected to the United States Senate to succeed General Harrison.

Several contested election cases were up for action, two at least being worthy of mention from the precedent set by them. One was a case from Vigo County. The certificate had been given to the Democratic candidate, he having received a majority of the votes cast. It appeared that at a preceding election he had been elected a Justice of the Peace but had never qualified. The constitution provides that any person elected to a judicial office shall not be eligible for any but a judicial office during the time for which he had been elected. The Democrats claimed that the contestee, never having taken the oath of office as Justice of the Peace, was not barred by the constitutional clause. The Republicans planted themselves on the broad reading of the constitution, and claimed that it did not matter whether he accepted the office or not, his having been elected rendered him ineligible to a seat in the House. Having a majority they unseated him and gave the seat to his opponent. The other case was

in the Senate. To that body a Republican Senator had been returned by a very large plurality from the district composed of Lawrence and Jackson Counties. His seat was contested on the ground that he had bribed, or attempted to bribe a voter. Some testimony had been taken, when one day the majority of the committee reported in favor of unseating him and giving his seat to his Democratic opponent. Debate was cut off, and within a few minutes the Republican was unseated and a Democrat was occupying his place.

On November 25, 1885, Vice President Hendricks died suddenly at his home in Indianapolis. For thirty years he had been a very prominent figure in Indiana history. He had served the State with honor and fidelity in many high positions, and for twenty-five years had been the one great leader of his party in the State. His personality made him popular with his political enemies even, while with those of his own political faith he was loved as well as admired. His sudden death was a shock to the Nation as well as to the State, and all parties united in paying him honor. His funeral brought many prominent men to Indianapolis from every part of the country. He was buried at Crown Hill, not far from his great political rival—Oliver P. Morton.

During the administration of Governor Gray, General Benjamin Harrison, was nominated by the Republicans for President. Governor Gray had himself been prominently spoken of as a candidate for Vice President on the Democratic ticket, and in the convention of his party received a large number of votes. The candidacy of General Harrison added greatly to the political excitement of the campaign. It resulted in favor of the Republicans, General Alvin P. Hovey being elected Governor. The Democrats

however, had a majority in both branches of the General Assembly.

During the administration of Governor Hovey, the struggle between the Legislature and the Executive over the appointments to office culminated. The Legislature passed a bill taking the appointments all out of the hands of the Governor. The Governor vetoed the bill, but it was passed over his veto. He then appealed to the courts, and much litigation ensued. The Supreme Court finally decided that the two offices of State Geologist and Chief of the Bureau of Statistics were of such a nature that they had to be filled by an election by the people. Since then the Legislature has gradually grown more liberal in its dealings with the Executive, although at its session of 1895 it placed the selection of the two prison boards in the hands of the State officers. The State Librarian is now selected by the State Board of Education, and all the other appointments are made by the Governor. This partisan struggle over the offices kept the State in a political turmoil for several years, and measurably retarded the institution of many needed reforms. The question is not finally settled, however, for the Legislature can, at its pleasure, resume the power now delegated to the Governor.

One of the most important acts of the Legislature under Governor Hovey's administration was one changing the method of selecting and supplying school books for the schools of the State. By that law the State Board of Education was made a Board of Commissioners to select and determine what text books should be used in the schools, and were to receive bids for the same. The prices at which the books should be furnished were also fixed by the statute. Under the law no text books are to be used other than those

selected by the Board of Education, and supplied by the parties to whom the contract may be awarded. Governor Hovey strongly urged that all text books be furnished at the expense of the State.

Another very important law passed at the session of the Legislature in 1889 was one changing the entire system of holding elections. The Legislature adopted what is known as the "Australian System." Indiana was one among the first States in the Union to adopt this system. The law has since been amended in some important particulars, but the main features of the system are still retained. The ballots are supplied by the State and by the various Counties, and none other can be used. The voter receives his ballots from the polling clerks, and retires to a private booth, in the polling room, and there, by certain marks, designates the candidates for whom he desires to vote.

A change was also made in regard to administering the death penalty for crime. Prior to that time all hangings took place in the enclosure around the jail of the County where the sentence of death had been pronounced. Under the new law criminals condemned to death are taken to the penitentiary, and the sentence is executed by the prison officers.

During the administration of Governor Hovey a memorable event took place. On August 22, 1889, the corner stone of the great Soldiers' Monument was laid at Indianapolis with impressive ceremonies. Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, was one of the distinguished persons present and taking part. It was made a great occasion by the members of the Grand Army of the Republic. — and thousands of veterans were present. The Governor, sur- — rounded by a numerous staff, and many military compan- —



G. A. R. PARADE AT INDIANAPOLIS, 1898.

ies and civic societies took part in the grand parade. President Harrison made a brief address. The orator of the occasion was General John Coburn, who as Colonel of the 33d Indiana regiment, and as commander of a brigade in the Army of the Cumberland, had won distinguished honors during the war.

Governor Hovey died November, 23, 1891, and Lieutenant Governor Ira J. Chase became acting Governor, and served as such until January 9, 1893.

In 1892 Claude Matthews was elected Governor. The State during the administration of Governors Gray and Hovey had had a wonderful growth in material wealth. The discovery of natural gas had given an impetus that soon added thousands to the population, and millions of wealth to the State. Even the great financial distress which followed the panic of 1893 did not destroy this prosperity. It retarded it somewhat, but Indiana suffered less, in comparison, than any other of the States. The most important events which occurred during the administration of Governor Matthews, were the great strike among the railroad men; the Grand Encampment of the G. A. R. at Indianapolis, and the change of the law in regard to the assessments for taxation. In 1882 the Grand Army of the Republic held its National Encampment at Indianapolis, but the great Encampment took place in September, 1893. The city appropriated \$75,000 and the citizens gave an additional \$50,000 to entertain the old soldiers. Most of the distinguished Generals still living were present, and marched in the great parade on September 4. The veterans were welcomed by the Governor of the State and the Mayor of the city. The shaft of the great monument had just been completed and the Encampment was a sort of dedication of this work.

In June, 1894, a strike occurred at Pullman, Illinois, by the employes of the Pullman Palace Car Company. It soon involved the employes of all the railroads centering in Chicago, and for many days rioting was frequent at many places along the lines of the various roads. At Hammond, Indiana, several hundred strikers, and their sympathizers took possession of the railroad tracks and stopped the running of all trains. Governor Matthews acted promptly and energetically, sending to Hammond several companies of the State militia. By this energetic course he prevented the destruction of property, and soon restored order.

Under the prevailing law the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Auditor and Secretary of State were a State Board of Equalization, with powers to equalize the assessments of property by the various Counties, and to determine the taxable value of the railroads in the State. This system had not worked well, and the Legislature of 1893 established a Board of Tax Commissioners, consisting of the State officers named and two commissioners to be appointed by the Governor. This new Board of Commissioners soon succeeded in adding many thousands of dollars to the assessed valuation of property throughout the State. It was one of the most important changes in the system of taxing property that had taken place in the life of the State, and stands to the credit of Governor Matthews and his administration.

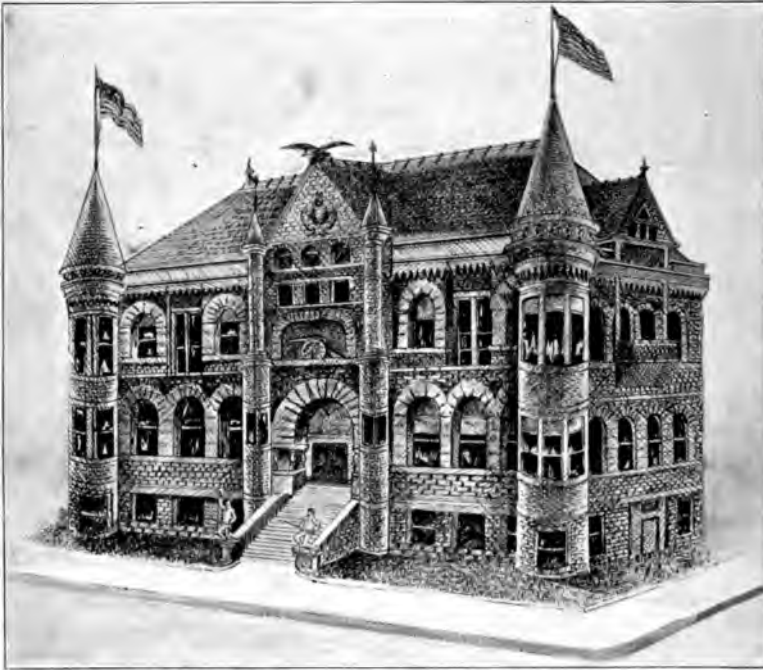
During his term of office the Governor displayed a firm intent to enforce the laws in other respects than in regard to strikes. Some parties of Chicago had purchased ground near Roby, in Lake County, for the purpose of establishing horse racing, prize fighting and other kindred amusements. Governor Matthews at once took the stand that no prize fighting should take place in the State while he was Gov-

ernor, and threatened, if necessary, to stop all such exhibitions by the military arm of the State. He took a stand against "winter racing" and through the courts finally stopped it.

His administration was notable from one other cause. In 1893 the Legislature re-districted the State for Legislative purposes. The law created great political excitement, and the Republicans at once brought an action in court to test its constitutionality. It was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. In 1895 the Republicans had a majority in both Houses of the General Assembly, and enacted a law of a similar character. This was at once attacked by the Democrats in the courts, and in turn was pronounced void. The Governor refused to call an extra session of the General Assembly, holding that the law of 1885 was in force. The Republicans combatted this proposition, and for the purpose of forcing the Governor to re-assemble the Legislature, attacked the law of 1885 in the courts. It looked for awhile as if the State would be thrown into a condition of civil anarchy, but the court prevented it by holding the law good.

The administration of Governor James A. Mount had just begun when this history closes. The first session of the Legislature under his administration was a very busy one, and many important measures were enacted. Hon Charles W. Fairbanks was elected to the United States Senate to succeed Hon. Daniel W. Voorhees. The whole prison system was remodeled. The prison at Jeffersonville was changed into a reformatory, and the grading system was ordered at the penitentiary at Michigan City. A law was also passed providing for indeterminate sentences in cases of felonies below the grade of murder and treason. One law

regulates the employment of children in factories and provides for a Factory Inspector, another provides for the examination of "Mine Bosses;" another provides for the appointment of a Labor Commissioner, while still another regulates the sales of cigarettes. Trusts were forbidden; a Medical Board was established, for the examination of applicants to practice medicine, and a law was enacted regulating the impeachment of public officers. One of the most important of the new laws was one making education compulsory.



MEMORIAL HALL, WABASH, IND.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

NEW HARMONY.

No history of Indiana would be complete, nor ought one be written without devoting some space to New Harmony. It has been the good fortune of but few cities even, to give to a State as many distinguished men in science and literature as the little town of New Harmony has given to Indiana. Its history is an idyl. It is the one historic spot of Indiana. Down in Posey county, near the confluence of the Wabash and Ohio rivers, in 1815, came a band of pioneers, with strange customs, habits and laws, and there attempted to build a community upon radical principles. As a prelude to the story of New Harmony a short sketch of its original founder is worthy of a place. In 1770, in Wurtemberg, Germany, was born George Rapp, who undertook to build a community and govern it on the New Testament, as he understood and interpreted it. He was a weaver by trade, but became a close student of the Bible, and impressed with the teachings of the New Testament, conceived that it was possible for men to live such righteous and holy lives as to eventually banish sin from the world, and that when sin was so banished, Christ would come again, and mingle with His own. He collected a little colony around him to whom he taught his doctrine. They were a peaceable, law-abiding, industrious people, but strange to say the little community

met with great opposition from the Government. So strong was this opposition that Rapp finally determined to leave Germany, and try his experiment in the new world. He came to the United States in 1803, and purchased lands in Pennsylvania.

The newcomers were poor when they opened their settlement in Pennsylvania, but they were honest and industrious, and within ten years were rich, owning flocks and herds and factories. From some cause the community was not satisfied in their Pennsylvania home, and in 1815 they purchased 30,000 acres of land in Posey County, Indiana, and there established a new home. Thousands of acres of land were cleared and the community engaged extensively in farming, fruit growing and stock raising. Many of the queer, old houses built by the original settlers still remain. One peculiarity is that none of them have a front door. They face the street, but the only door leading to the outer world is placed so as to open on the interior of the lot. Among the first things the settlers did was to erect a fort for their protection from the Indians. It was a long, low structure, with narrow portholes cut through the stone. A long, underground passage extended from the interior of the fort to the house of Mr. Rapp, several hundred yards away. In the center of the town is the old Rappite cemetery, surrounded by a brick wall about five feet high. No gravestones, monuments or other distinguishing marks at the graves are seen, the members of the community not believing in such things. In front of a vineyard on a hillside was a series of concentric walks, bordered with shrubs and flowers. These walks led to a beautiful summer house in the center. If exactly the right course was not followed the house could not be reached.

The community believed in the bible, and were devout worshippers of Christ. A great church was built in the shape of a Greek cross. It extended one hundred and thirty feet from east to west and one hundred and twenty feet from north to south. The walls and ceilings of one of the wings were magnificently frescoed and painted. The main portion of this church was afterward used for a slaughter house, for the killing and packing of hogs. One wing yet remains and is occupied as a library and art gallery, the library being especially valuable. In 1824 the Rappites sold out their holdings to another dreamer, but one of a different character. In 1771, but a year after the birth of George Rapp, in Germany, Robert Owen was born in Wales. He was poor and unknown, and finally drifted to London, and from London to Manchester, where at the age of twenty he found himself manager of a large cotton factory. He also dreamed of a Utopia. He believed it was possible for capital and labor to be one in all things, and he eventually established a community at New Lanark, Scotland. It was a model manufacturing town. He built large and beautiful school rooms wherein the children of his workmen were better taught, in many respects, than the children of the nobility at Eton or Harrow. They were also regularly drilled in singing, dancing, military exercises, and polite demeanor. Years afterward he wrote of his experiment, saying: "For twenty-nine years we did without the necessity for magistrates or lawyers; without a single legal punishment; without any known poor rates; without intemperance or religious animosities. We reduced the hours of labor, well educated all the children from infancy, greatly improved the condition of the adults, and cleared upward of three hundred thousand pounds profit."

He spent many years in traveling and teaching that the world would be better off if co-operation should take the place of competition, and if the people lived in communities, owning all things in common. He tried to introduce his theories into practice in America, and bought out the Rappites at New Harmony, in 1824. Owen and Rapp were both dreamers, but there was this marked distinction and difference between them. Rapp was a devout believer in God and in the truths of Christianity, while Owen was a free thinker, rejecting creeds as superstition. Owen had with him in his purchase of New Harmony, William Maclure, the father of American geology. It was not long before the knowledge of this modern Utopia spread abroad through Europe, and although the scheme of communistic living and government soon failed, for nearly fifty years New Harmony was a sort of Mecca for men of science and learning, and they gathered there from all parts of the world. A school was established which drew students from all sections of America. Robert Owen soon returned to Scotland, but he left Robert Dale Owen, William Owen, David Dale Owen, and Richard Owen, his four sons, who all became men of mark, in the State and nation. The eldest, Robert Dale reflected more honor in his life time on the State than almost any other one man.

CHAPTER XXIX.

LAKES, CAVERNS, MEDICINAL WATERS.

Indiana is not without its wonders of nature, and nature has added to her blessings great springs of wonderful health-giving properties. The northern part of the State is dotted with little lakes now furnishing delightful summer resorts for many of the dwellers in the cities. They are surrounded with scenery of rustic beauty, which adds to their attractiveness. Some of them are quite large, furnishing opportunities for sailing and yachting with small steam yachts. Most, if not all of them, are fed by springs, making the waters especially pure. Much of the ice furnished in the various cities of the State comes from the smaller of the lakes, and the ice industry has assumed large proportions in late years. At some of the lakes, hotels have been erected and furnish accommodations for hundreds of summer tourists. Fulton county has several very pretty lakes, the principal one being Manitou, near Rochester. It covers about thirteen thousand acres of land, and at one time was well stocked with fish. It has no very great depth, but is deep enough to make sailing in small boats delightful. The lakes in Kosciusko county have been noted places of resort for several years. Turkey, or Wawasee, was originally known as Nine Mile Lake. Its extreme length was nine miles, but at the upper end a railroad crosses it cutting off about two

miles. At the narrowest point it is one and a half miles wide, and it stretches out from that until it reaches a width of three miles. It has bold shores, heavily covered with forest trees. A number of handsome cottages adorn its shores, and steam and sailing yachts ply upon its waters.

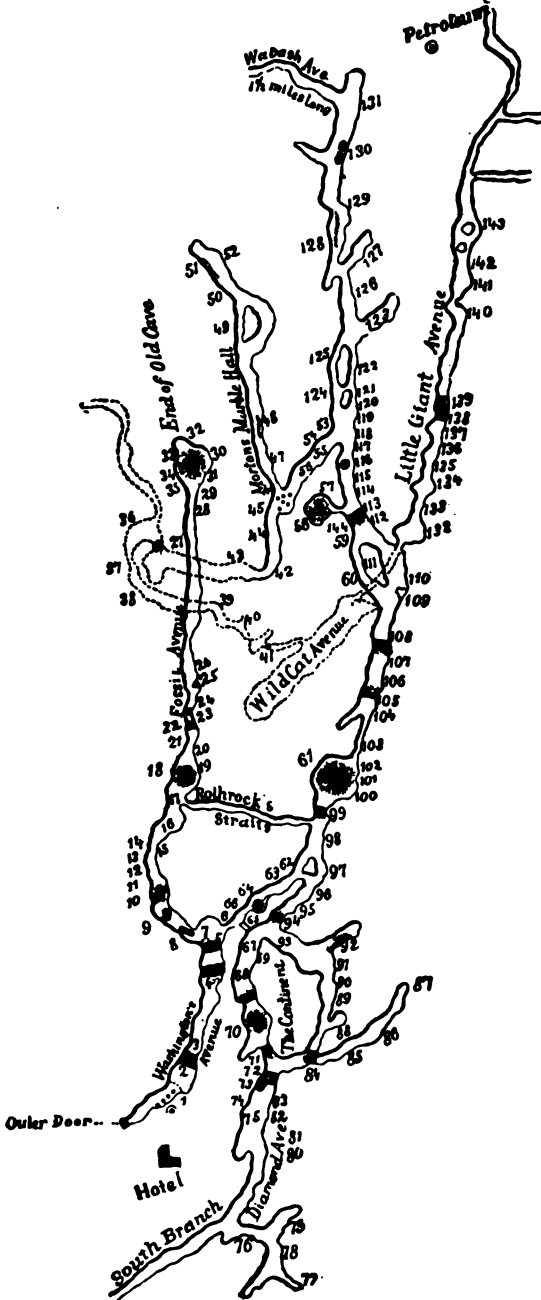
Eagle Lake is another beautiful sheet of water in Kosciusko County. It is near the city of Warsaw, and the scenery around it is one of more than ordinary beauty. The most of the land around the lake is owned by the Winona Association, and it is destined to become one of the most popular spots in the country for holding religious and other conventions. Lake Maxinkuckee, in Marshall County, is a fair rival to both Wawassee and Eagle. It is almost surrounded by cottages and club houses. Near all of these lakes are excellent springs of water, and at Maxinkuckee there are a number of flowing wells. Flowing wells are quite a feature of Northern Indiana. In Grant and Clinton Counties especially they are very numerous. The wells are driven to a depth of sixty or more feet, when a subterranean stream or lake is reached, and the water will rise in the piping, and flow in a continuous stream from the top. This water is remarkably pure and needs no ice to make it palatable.

Southern Indiana has several caverns worthy of description and that will well repay a visit, but one of which only will be described in this work—Wyandotte Cave, in Crawford County, a few miles from Leavenworth. Next to Mammoth Cave, in Kentucky, this is the largest cavern in the United States. It is situated among the rugged hills of the Ohio and Blue Rivers. Its enormous underground halls and vaulted domes, and its vast piles of fallen rocks and gigantic fluted columns make it stand unrivalled among the

caverns of America. The first history of this remarkable cavern goes back to 1812, when it was used for the manufacture of saltpetre. From the close of the last war with Great Britain, until 1850 the cave was little known. In 1843 the Legislature passed a law requiring the owner of the land around the mouth of the cave to fence it in, for the purpose of preventing cattle from entering it and licking the epsom salts, which were abundant. In 1850, a party of gentlemen discovered a new entrance, about one thousand feet from the mouth of the old cave, and explored it. From that time to the present several new chambers, or passageways have been discovered.

The cavern has not been as thoroughly surveyed as the great cave of Kentucky, and its dimensions have been largely exaggerated in some published reports, but enough has been done in the way of measurements to prove it to be one of the largest caverns in the world. Notwithstanding the difficulty of access to the cave, it has been visited by large numbers of scientists, who have gone there in the interest of knowledge, while hundreds of curious sightseers have explored its underground chambers and passageways. The accompanying diagram was drawn by Professor Blatchley, State Geologist, and will give a good understanding of the extent and shape of the cave:

WYANDOTTE CAVE.



- 0 Saltpetre Hoppers.
- 1 Arched Entrance.
- 2 Faneuil Hall.
- 3 Columbian Arch.
- 4 Falling Rock.
- 5 Wyandotte Chief.
- 6 Entrance to New Cave and Fat Man's Misery.
- 7 Banditti Hall.
- 8 Jacob's Ladder.
- 9 Pigmy Dome.
- 10 Debris Dome.
- 11 Continued Arch.
- 12 The Canopy.
- 13 Lucifer's Gorge.
- 14 Natural Bridge.
- 15 The Stoop.
- 16 Temple of Honor.
- 17 Secret Entrance to Rothrock's Straits.
- 18 Odd Fellows' Hall.
- 19 Phantom Ship, "Millie."
- 20 Pharaoh's Stairway.
- 21 Conrad's Hall.
- 22 The Cliffs.
- 23 The Pit.
- 24 Falls of Minnehaha.
- 25 Dead Fall.
- 26 Cyclops' Chasm.
- 27 Dead Sea.
- 28 Screw Hole.
- 29 Polished Boulders—Indian.
- 30 Senate Chamber.
- 31 Chair of State.
- 32 Pluto Ravine.
- 33 Stallasso Monument.
- 34 Stillo Mountain.
- 35 Pillar of the Constitution.
- 36 Heman's Bower.
- 37 Hine Cliffs.
- 38 Lonigan's Pass.
- 39 Diamond Labyrinth.
- 40 Emmonecy Arcade.
- 41 Rode Rock No. 1.
- 42 Queen Mab's Retreat.
- 43 Snow Banks.
- 44 Zoe Grotto.
- 45 Ice House.
- 46 Frosted Rock.
- 47 Snowy Cliffs.
- 48 Indian Footprints.
- 49 Beauty's Bower.
- 50 Queen Mab's Marble Garden.
- 51 Fairy Palace.
- 52 Wyandotte Potatoes—Pebbles.
- 53 The Arm Chair.
- 54 Lovers' Retreat.
- 55 Ewing Hall.

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| 56 Frost King's Palace. | Grand Dome, 50 feet above top of Mountain, and 185 feet above base of the hill. |
| 57 Bowlder Flints. | 101 Sulphur Spring. |
| 58 Milroy Temple. | 102 The Augur Hole. |
| 59 Penelope Grotto. | 103 Lilliputian Hall. |
| 60 Ulysses' Straits. | 104 Spade's Grotto. |
| 61 Rothrock Cathedral. | 105 Slippery Hill. |
| 62 Coons' Council Chamber. | 106 Hall of Ruins. |
| 63 The Rotunda. | 107 White Cloud Room. |
| 64 Rugged Mountain. | 108 Sentinel Office. |
| 65 Cut Off. | 109 Bishop's Rostrum or Pulpit. |
| 66 Counterfeiters' Trench. | 110 Journal Office. |
| 67 Starry Hall. | 111 Calypso's, or Island No. 2. |
| 68 Wyandotte Grand Council Chamber. | 112 Cerulean Vault. |
| 69 The Card Table. | 113 Rugged Pass. |
| 70 Hall of Representatives. | 114 Chapel. |
| 71 Hill of Science. | 115 Vestry. |
| 72 The Alligator. | 116 Josephine's Arcade. |
| 73 The Mound. | 117 The Parsonage. |
| 74 The Throne. | 118 The Junction. |
| 75 General Scott's Reception Room. | 119 The Lone Chamber or Ball Room. |
| 76 Anteroom. | 120 Dry Branch. |
| 77 Hovey Point. | 121 Island of Confusion, or No. 3. |
| 78 The Pit and Sieve. | 122 Grand View Island, or No. 4. |
| 79 The Amphitheater. | 123 Sandy Branch and Air Torrent. |
| 80 Rocky Hill. | 124 Newhall's Forum. |
| 81 Muddy Fork. | 125 Grosvenor's Avenue. |
| 82 Lost Rivulet. | 126 Gothic Chapel. |
| 83 Frozen Cascades or Curtains. | 127 The Gallery. |
| 84 The Hippopotamus. | 128 Indian Footprints. |
| 85 Fairy Grotto. | 129 The Den. |
| 86 Neptune Retreat. | 130 Ship in the Stocks. |
| 87 Hermit Cell. | 131 Crawfish Spring. |
| 88 The Sepulchre. | 132 Maggie's Grotto. |
| 89 Purgatory. | 133 Joseph's Pit. |
| 90 Caliope Bower. | 134 Lama's Bower. |
| 91 Palace of the Genii. | 135 Marble Rivulet. |
| 92 Pillared Palace. | 136 Marble Hall. |
| 93 Creeping Avenue. | 137 Miller's Reach. |
| 94 Junction Room. | 138 Andrew's Retreat. |
| 95 Drawing Room. | 139 Rode Rock No. 2. |
| 96 Dining Room. | 140 The Devil's Elbow. |
| 97 Delta Island. | 141 The Pit. |
| 98 Sandy Plain, 300 feet long. | 142 Langsdale's Basin. |
| 99 Hill of Difficulty. | 143 Washington Rothrock's Island. |
| 100 Monument Mountain, 135 feet high, over which is Wallace's | 144 Bourbonoi. |

This cavern has many large chambers, some of them of remarkable beauty. One of the most noted is "Odd Fellow's Hall," which is ninety feet wide, two hundred and ten feet long, and sixty-five feet high. The ceiling is oval in shape and narrower than the floor, owing to the massive ledges of limestone, which form the walls, projecting into the room. Great masses of rocks fill the room, and it is the abode of thousands of bats. Altogether it forms a strange and weird scene of surpassing gloom and grandeur. Not far from Odd Fellows' Hall, and reached by a narrow and difficult passageway, is a perpendicular wall of rocks, known as the "Cliffs." Over these a drapery of stalactites has been thrown, by the action of nature, resembling a cascade, congealed into stone. This cascade has been called "The Falls of Minnehaha."

The "Senate Chamber," is a vast elliptical amphitheater, one hundred and forty-four feet long and fifty-six feet wide. The sides are built up with massive ledges of limestone, converging into a monster dome, with a flat elliptical crown. The center of this vast room is piled up with a great mass of stone which has, at some time, fallen from the cavity above. The mass of rock in the center is known as "Capitol Hill," and is about thirty-two feet high. It is crowned to the depth of several feet with an immense mass of stalagmitic material. From the top of this mass arises a great fluted column of satin spar, or crystalline carbonate of lime. This is called "The Pillar of the Constitution," and is the grandest of all the natural wonders of the cavern. It exceeds in magnitude any similar formation known. It is cylindrical in form, seventy feet in circumference, and reaches from the crest of the hill to the ceiling. Down the sides of the pillar tiny streams of water constantly trickle. Spreading out on the top of the

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hill the water quickly evaporates, leaving the solid matter contained to add to the beauty of the hill.

"The Chair of State" is another one of the beautiful features of the cavern. It is a handsome mass of stalactites and stalagmites extending from the top of "Capitol Hill," to the ceiling. "Pluto's Ravine," is a long hall, the roof of which is studded with representations of sprigs, twining tendrils and corals. The largest room, and said to be the largest underground room known to man, is called "Rothrock's Grand Cathedral." The ceiling is one hundred and thirty feet from the floor. The cave has been explored for about four miles, or a little more.

The natural wonders of Indiana are not confined to the caverns, but among the most important are the medicinal waters found in many parts of the State. These waters, in some places, flow in constant streams from the surface, and in others are found by boring artesian wells. The most noted springs are those found in Orange and Martin Counties. In many places in Orange County springs strongly tinctured with sulphur are found, but at French Lick and West Baden, which are only a few hundred feet apart, they are found in the greatest abundance and greatest variety. These springs are in a small valley which has every appearance of having been formed by some convulsion of nature. The valley is surrounded by hills, of a uniform height, while the valley looks as if at sometime the ground had sunk a hundred or more feet, and from this sunken ground the health giving waters flow from many springs, all of great medicinal properties. This valley is almost always surrounded by a heavy mist. Great hotels have been erected and hundreds of invalids annually resort to them, to drink the waters. The springs of Martin County are almost equally

noted. In Martinsville, Morgan County, and at Spencer, in Owen County, artesian wells have been bored which are classed as among the best medicinal waters in the whole country. Similar wells are found in other parts of the State.

These medicinal waters have been attracting the attention of the medical men of the country, and have, as a consequence, drawn to Indiana hundreds of invalids seeking health. The lakes of northern Indiana and the springs and wells of the southern part of the State furnish delightful resorts for the tourist or health-seeker.

CHAPTER XXX.

STATESMEN AND POLITICIANS.

For two decades or more Indiana has been looked upon as the political storm center of the country. It has frequently been said that in Indiana everybody talks politics—that the children prattle about politics at their play; that merchants talk it to their customers, and preachers preach it from their pulpits. It has also been said that every person in Indiana is a born politician. It is true that in this State political battles have been more hotly contested than anywhere else, and the State has furnished to the Union some of its greatest political leaders, and also some of its profoundest statesmen. A man may be a great political leader and a great statesman, but the combination is a rare one. Hon. Jesse D. Bright, who for seventeen years represented the State in the United States Senate, was one of the greatest party leaders the State has ever known, yet hardly any one would claim he was a great statesman. He was a thorough politician and was a master of the art of handling a political party. He had numerous able and powerful enemies within his own party, but they could accomplish nothing as against his leadership. Take the two great political rivals—Oliver P. Morton and Thomas A. Hendricks. While they lived it was a “battle of the giants” for political control of the State, yet they both were statesmen as well as politicians. It is

hard to single out those who should be ranked among the great men of Indiana in a political sense, for she has had many, yet the lives of some of them have had so much to do with shaping the destinies of the State and giving character and tone to her history that this work will not be complete without something more than a mere mention of them. It is not alone those of the later years who are worthy of more than passing notice, but among those who laid the foundations of the State, were some entitled to rank as statesmen.

GENERAL WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

Much of Indiana's prestige is due to the men who first controlled its destinies. When Indiana Territory was organized, in 1800, General William Henry Harrison was appointed Governor. He was a Virginian by birth. His father had long been prominent in the affairs of Virginia, and of the United Colonies. He had represented Virginia in the Continental Congress, and had signed the Declaration of Independence. In 1773, his son, William Henry, was born in Berkeley, Charles City County, on February 9. His infancy was spent amid the stirring scenes of the struggle for independence. He was educated at Hampton Sidney College, and studied medicine, but at the age of nineteen determined to enter the army. He received a commission as ensign, and was attached to the army of General St. Clair, then in the Northwest Territory. He served with St. Clair until that General was superceded by Anthony Wayne, and then became one of the latter's aides, and in that capacity was present when Wayne overthrew the Indian powers on the Maumee. In 1795 he was appointed a Captain and placed in command of Fort Washington, where Cincinnati

now stands. General St. Clair was still Governor of the Northwest Territory, and in 1807 Captain Harrison was made Secretary of the Territory, and resigned from the army. When it came time to elect a delegate to Congress, Captain Harrison, and Arthur St. Clair, Jr., a son of the Governor, became candidates. The Congressional delegates were then elected by the Legislative Council. Harrison received eleven votes, and St. Clair ten. He entered at once upon his duties, but in 1800, when the Territory of Indiana was organized, he was appointed Governor.

The seat of government of the new Territory was fixed at Vincennes. The Territory then embraced what is now Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan. In all this vast scope of country there were not more than five thousand civilized people. The Indians laid claim to the whole of it, with the exception of small grants in four or five places. On the 10th of January, 1801, he arrived at Vincennes and assumed direction of affairs. Under his instructions one of his chief duties was to extinguish, by treaty, as fast as possible, the Indian claims to the country. In what is now Indiana, there were no settlers except at Vincennes, and a few on Clark's Grant, at the Falls of the Ohio. There was a small military post at the head of the Maumee, where Fort Wayne now stands. He administered the affairs of the Territory with remarkable skill, and made numerous treaties with the Indians, securing grants of lands with each of them. General Harrison was Southern born. He had grown up in an atmosphere of slavery, and his feelings were all towards that institution. By the Ordinance of 1787 slavery was forbidden in the territory northwest of the Ohio. Nearly all of those who had come into the Territory, after its establishment, were from the South, but they were not all friendly to

slavery. Some of the immigrants had brought their slaves with them, and for several years a determined effort was made to secure the abrogation of the clause, in the Ordinance of 1787, forbidding slavery. With those in favor of this abrogation the Governor acted. The opponents, however, had grown in strength, and all such efforts were defeated. At one time a strong faction attempted to undermine and destroy the popularity of Governor Harrison, but their machinations were disclosed and defeated.

The Indians became troublesome in 1811. They were under the leadership of Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet. The ostensible cause of the trouble was that Governor Harrison had made a treaty with the Miamis, and secured a cession of land, without the consent of the Shawnees, but Tecumseh had been fired by the traditions of Pontiac half a century before, and designed to form a grand confederacy of all the Indian tribes against the whites. He had two or three interviews with Harrison, one of which was especially stormy, and at which Tecumseh had planned to take the life of the Governor, but was thwarted by the promptness of General John Gibson. General Harrison organized a campaign against the hostiles and defeated them at the battle of Tippecanoe.

In 1812, on the outbreak of the war with Great Britain, Governor Harrison was made a Brigadier General in the regular army, and was assigned to the command of the northwest frontier. He began the work of organizing the frontier for defense, and issued a warning to the various Indian tribes, that he would punish any infraction of the treaties existing between them and the Government. The following year he was promoted to the rank of Major General, and was especially assigned to the task of recovering the

territory lost by the surrender of Detroit. By this time nearly all the Indian tribes were in alliance with the British. General Harrison, was strengthened by the Government, and organized a force of volunteers. With these he pursued the British and Indians into Canada, where he inflicted upon them a disastrous defeat, at the battle of the Thames.

Not long after the close of the war, owing to a difficulty with General Armstrong, Secretary of War, General Harrison resigned his commission in the army and retired to private life, settling on his farm at North Bend, near Cincinnati. In 1816 he was elected to Congress from the Cincinnati district, and served three years. On retiring from Congress he was sent to the Ohio State Senate, and in 1824 was elected to a seat in the United States Senate, which he held until 1828, when President John Quincy Adams made him United States Minister to Columbia. This post he held but a short time, for President Jackson, immediately upon his accession to office removed him. He again returned to Ohio, and was elected Clerk of the Court of Common Pleas. In 1836 he was a candidate for the Presidency, receiving seventy-three electoral votes, those of Indiana being among the number. In December, 1839, at the Whig convention, at Harrisburg, he was made the nominee of that party for the Presidency, over Clay, Webster and Scott. This nomination was followed by the most remarkable political campaign that had ever been witnessed in this country. The Democrats undertook to deride him out of the election, and made fun of his cabin home. His friends took up the cry, and log cabins and hard cider became features of the campaign, as flat boats and fence rails did twenty years later. It was during this campaign, that campaign political papers first

appeared. The election resulted in favor of the Whigs, General Harrison receiving two hundred and thirty-four electoral votes, to sixty cast for President Van Buren. Again Indiana cast her vote for her first Governor.

General Harrison was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1841, but died just one month later, from disease brought on by the exposures of inauguration day. General Harrison would hardly be classed as a great man, but he filled every station in which he was called with remarkable fidelity, and to the satisfaction of the people. It was fortunate, for Indiana, that he failed in his efforts to open the doors of the Territory to slavery, and he lived long enough to acknowledge this, and to rejoice that he did fail. As a soldier he was uniformly successful. He thoroughly understood the Indian character, and was successful in thwarting the schemes of Tecumseh, and other hostile chieftains. His remains are buried at his farm home at North Bend.

JOHN TIPTON.

John Tipton must always be classed among the great men of Indiana. He was a pioneer, a frontiersman, a soldier of great merit, and a statesman. That is, he was a statesman in knowing what a frontier State needed, and what was best for its people, and after all, that is the truest test of statesmanship. John Tipton was born in 1786, August 14, in Sevier County, Tennessee. When John was a little more than five years old his father was killed by the Indians. As young John grew to manhood, he grew into an Indian fighter and became one of the best known of that class in Tennessee. He was fearless and tireless in his pursuit of the savages, and became almost as well known as Simon

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Kenton. In 1807 he came to Indiana, bringing his mother with him. He made Harrison County his home. It was a period of danger to the settlers. The Indians were still hostile, and the country was infested by a lawless band of horse stealers and robbers. Tipton soon became a leader among the settlers of Harrison County, and was one of the foremost in driving from that County all lawless characters. When the Indians, under the leadership of Tecumseh and his brother, began to grow restless, a military company was organized in Harrison County, under the command of Captain Spier Spencer. Tipton was elected Ensign. This company became a part of the force Governor Harrison led to Tippecanoe, and in that battle it suffered greatly. Captain Spencer and both his lieutenants were killed and the command of the company devolved upon Tipton. After the battle Tipton remained in the service of the Territory and finally rose to the rank of Brigadier General in the militia, and led several expeditions against the marauding Indians, and always with success.

General Tipton had never had any advantages in the way of securing an education, and at the time of his military service was very illiterate. During the Tippecanoe campaign he kept a journal of the daily events. In this journal he thus describes the battle:

"Thursday the 7 agreeble to their promised. Last night we were answered by the firing of guns and the Shawnies Breaking into our tents a blood Combat Took Place at Precisely 15 minutes before five in the morning which lasted two hours and 20 minutes of a continewel firing while many times mixed among the Indians so that we Could not tell the indians and our men apart. they kept up a firing on three sides of us took our tent from the gueard fire. Our men

fought Brave and By the timely help of Capt. Cook with a company of infantry we maid a charge and drove them out of the timber across the prairie. Our Loost in killed and wounded was 179 and theirs graiter than ours. among the Dead was our Capt. Spier Spencer and first Lieutenant mc-mahan and Captain Berry that had been attached to our company and 5 more killed Dead and 15 wounded. after the indians gave ground we Burried our Dead. Among the Kentuckians was killed mayj Owen and mayj Davis badly wounded and a number of others in all killed and wounded was 179 but no company suffered like ours. we then held an Election for officers. I was Elected Capt, Saml. Flanagan first Lieut and Jacob Zenor second Lieut and Philip Bell Ensign. we then built Breastworks our men in much confusion, our flower been too small and all our beeve lost. Last night onley half rations of whisky and no corn for our horses. my horse killed I got mcmahans to Ride. 37 of them had been killed wounded and lost last night. I had one quart of whisky."

There was not much promise of a future United States Senator in that account of the battle in the night, but the writer of that account became, in after life not only a member of the Senate, but a very influential one. At the first election under the State constitution Mr. Tipton was elected Sheriff of Harrison County. In 1819 he was elected to the Legislature, and was one of the Commissioners appointed to select a site for the new capital of the State. In 1821 he was one of the Commissioners to fix the boundary between Indiana and Illinois, and in 1823 he was appointed by President Monroe, general agent for the Pottawattamie and Miami Indians, in Northern Indiana. On accepting this office he removed to Fort Wayne, where the agency was

located, but a few years later induced the Government to remove the agency to Logansport, a new town in which he had become interested.

In December, 1831, he was elected to fill out the unexpired term of Senator Noble who had died in office. Two years later he was elected for a full term of six years. He was a Democrat, and while in the Senate acted with that party, except on the bank question. He was a warm advocate of the United States Bank. In the Senate he soon wielded a wide influence. He was not an orator, and although he had vastly improved since the days of the Tippecanoe campaign, yet he was far from being an educated man. He had strong common sense; was broad in his views, and on all matters touching the West was thoroughly informed.

General Tipton did much for Fort Wayne, Logansport and Columbus. He gave sixty acres of land, where Columbus now stands, to the County for the use of public buildings, and for awhile the town was named "Tiptonia." He presented to the State the ground on which the battle of Tippecanoe was fought. Had General Tipton possessed the advantages of education he would have been one of the foremost men of the nation.

JAMES WHITCOMB.

Near Windsor, Vermont, on the first day of December, 1795, was born James Whitcomb, whose name afterward was so intimately identified with Indiana that it became a part of the history of the State. He was born on a rugged and barren farm, in sight of the Green Mountains. A few years after the birth of James the elder Whitcomb determined to carve out for himself and family a home in the then

far west. He removed to Ohio, and settled near Cincinnati, and began the work of clearing a farm, and in this work the active lad bore his full share. Amid these hardships and with only the encouragements he could get from the kind words of neighbors, the young lad toiled and studied, reading with avidity every book he could borrow in the neighborhood, until he had fitted himself for college. He then entered Transylvania College, and by working and teaching during vacations maintained himself until he graduated. He chose the law for his profession, and after leaving college devoted himself diligently to acquiring a knowledge of that science. He was admitted to the bar in Kentucky, and in 1824 he came to Indiana and settled at Bloomington. It was not long before he became one of the leading attorneys of that section, and receiving the appointment of Prosecuting Attorney from Governor Ray, acquired an extensive acquaintance.

After serving a term or two in the State Senate, where he added to his fame as a ready and forcible debater, he was, in 1836, appointed, by President Jackson, Commissioner of the General Land Office, at Washington. He was reappointed by President Van Buren and served throughout his term. In 1841 he returned to Indiana and took up his residence at Terre Haute. It was at the very height of the business depression following the failure of the attempt on the part of the State to construct a vast system of railroads, canals and turnpikes. Mr. Whitcomb, while a member of the State Senate, had opposed the scheme of internal improvements, and had made several very able speeches in opposition. The scheme had been a favorite one with the people, and the Whigs being its great advocates had carried the State for several years. The Democrats, in 1843, in look-

ing around for a candidate for Governor, chose Mr. Whitcomb. Three years previously the great champion of their party, Hon. Tilghman A. Howard, had been badly beaten on the internal improvement issue. Notwithstanding the scheme had fallen from its own weight and left the State and the people burden with debt, it still had friends enough to make an election look very doubtful for one of the opposition, but Mr. Whitcomb was in no way discouraged. His confidence was not misplaced, for he defeated the Whig candidate, Governor Bigger, by a handsome majority.

He entered upon the duties of his office at a very discouraging period. The elaborate internal improvement system entered upon by the State had broken down, leaving the State overwhelmed with debt. The interest upon the State bonds had not been paid for several years, and the good name of the State was suffering. The great panic of 1837 and the following years had left its mark deep on all Indiana enterprises. The State had no money—could get none. Her creditors were clamorous. For sometime she had been using a script for discharging her indebtedness to the contractors on the great public works, but that script had gone down, down, until it practically had no purchasing power, and the State had no money with which to redeem it. There was distress everywhere.

This was the state of affairs when Mr. Whitcomb took the oath of office. He bent his energies to find a way to redeem the credit of the State and once more put her on the path to prosperity. Negotiations were opened with the holders of the State bonds, most of them being in England. Finally a solution was reached. A scheme was devised to retire the old bonds, and issue new ones for a part of the debt, the bondholders taking the unfinished public improvements for

the other part. To this settlement of the embarrassed financial affairs of the State Governor Whitcomb gave all the aid in his power. While it would be unjust to others to give him all the credit of the settlement, yet it was effected during his administration, and stands to its credit. For some years before his term of office the question of doing something for the unfortunate of the State had been agitated. The constitution had imposed the duty of caring for them on the Legislature, but owing to many causes nothing had been done. Governor Whitcomb took hold of this matter in earnest, and largely through his efforts the hospital for the insane and the institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb, and blind were erected.

The Mexican war came and Governor Whitcomb ably supplemented the efforts of the General Government in raising volunteers. It is one of the misfortunes of the State that but little has been placed among the State records of the doings of Indiana troops during that war. The report of the Adjutant General covers only a page or two in the Documentary Journals of the Legislature, and is confined wholly to a statement of the number of regiments furnished. Mr. Whitcomb was re-elected Governor, but before his term of service was out he was chosen a member of the United States Senate. He was in bad health when he went to Washington, and he died in New York, October 4, 1852. His remains were brought to Indianapolis and buried, and the State erected a monument to his memory.

Governor Whitcomb was a powerful political writer and speaker. He was a good lawyer, but not a great one. He was an able Governor, and did much to make the name of Indiana respected at home and abroad. He possessed but few of the arts of a politician, and was chosen to the high places he filled because of his commanding abilities.

JOSEPH A. WRIGHT.

The last Governor under the old constitution, and the first under the new, Joseph A. Wright, was one of the most remarkable men Indiana has produced. He was born April 17, 1810, at Washington, Pennsylvania. While he was yet a boy he removed with his father to Bloomington, Indiana. The family were very poor. Young Joseph was ambitious, and determined to secure an education. His parents were unable to help him, but the boy did not need help. He was able to help himself. To pay his way through the State University he acted as janitor, and to buy books earned money by carrying brick, and doing odd jobs around the little town. He remained in college two years, paying his way by the most laborious methods. He then entered upon the study of law. When he was ready for practice he removed to Rockville, Parke County. He at once made himself popular with the people, and before he was twenty years old he was a practicing attorney. At the age of twenty-three he was elected to the State Legislature. After serving a term or two in the Legislature he was, in 1843, elected to Congress. He was a candidate for re-election, but was defeated by a small majority. In 1849 he was nominated by the Democrats for Governor. During his first term the new constitution was proposed and adopted, changing the length of the term of Governor from three to four years, and in 1852 he was elected Governor under the new constitution.

He was bitterly opposed to all banks, and used all his powers to prevent the State Bank from getting a new charter. It was through his efforts that the rottenness of many of the free banks was exposed, and they were driven

out of business. Governor Wright and Senator Jesse D. Bright contended long and bitterly for the mastery of their party. The Governor held the people, while the Senator controlled the politicians. Mr. Wright ardently desired to go to the United States Senate, but his ambitions in this direction were always thwarted by Mr. Bright. The hatred of the two men for each other was of the most intense kind, and the English language hardly furnished them words enough to express their opinion of each other.

In 1857, shortly after the expiration of his second term as Governor, Mr. Wright was appointed Minister to Prussia, by President Buchanan, and served at that court four years. He was courtly, urbane and dignified, and added much to the reputation of the United States abroad. He was in Europe when the rebellion broke out. He took strong grounds in favor of the Government, and hastened home to lend the weight of his influence in favor of the Union. His four years' residence abroad had somewhat estranged him from the State, but his popularity with the rank and file of his party was still very great. In 1862, when Jesse D. Bright was expelled from the Senate, Governor Morton appointed Mr. Wright to the vacant place. Thus it was he at last reached the position he had long desired. In the Senate he became one of Mr. Lincoln's staunchest advocates. His loyalty was of the intense type, and he voted steadily with the Republicans on all war measures. He still had a month or two of the term to fill out when the Legislature met in 1863. The Democrats, his former political friends, had a large majority on joint ballot, but his alliance with the Republicans, and his stern advocacy of all war measures prevented him from receiving their votes, for either the short or long term. Hon. David Turpie was elected for the short term, and Hon. Thomas A. Hendricks for the full.

President Lincoln appointed him a Commissioner to the Hamburg Exposition, in 1863, and President Johnson, two years later, made him Minister to Berlin again. He died, at Berlin, March 11, 1867. It is doubtful if Indiana ever held a public man who was as great an adept at canvassing for votes as Mr. Wright. From a poor boy struggling for an education he had climbed up the various steps of the ladder, until he had twice served the people of the State as their Governor, and twice represented his country at one of the most important capitals of Europe. In his day he stood closer to the people of the State than any other man.

HENRY S. LANE.

Indiana has had many noted orators—orators who possessed the power to move the multitudes, and arouse them to the highest pitch of enthusiasm. There was Marshall and Dunn, Parker and Willard, Howard and Caleb B. Smith, but none of them equaled Henry S. Lane. He was not a debater. He was not logical, nor analytical, but possessed an eloquence that was peculiarly his own. He was long known as “the silver-tongued orator.” Other men might speak and convince the reason of their hearers, but Henry S. Lane did not convince—he captured and took prisoner, by his imagery, his wonderful talent of telling striking anecdotes, and when he was through, his hearers were ready to do and dare for him, or for the creed he espoused. He was in at the birth of the Republican party, and his fame as an orator was such at that time as to cause him to be chosen President of the convention which nominated Fremont for the Presidency. His speech on taking the gavel was a wonderful burst of eloquence, and aroused such enthusiasm that it was

a long time before the convention could settle down to the work before it. It mattered not when or where he was called upon to speak the same matchless eloquence was sure to be heard.

Henry S. Lane was born in Montgomery County, Kentucky, February 11, 1811. When eighteen years of age he began the study of law, and in 1835 came to Indiana, making his home at Crawfordsville. He left Kentucky because he hated slavery. He was not an abolitionist, but did not believe in the institution. In 1840 he was elected to Congress as a Whig, and was re-elected two years afterward by a largely increased majority. In 1844 he threw himself heart and soul into the contest in favor of Henry Clay.

When the war with Mexico came, the Whigs, as a rule, opposed it, but Mr. Lane was one of its most fiery advocates, and assisted in organizing a regiment, of which he was made Major, but afterward promoted to Lieutenant Colonel. He acted with the Whigs until 1854, when the People's Party was organized. The People's Party was made up of many elements, old Whigs, anti-Nebraska Democrats, Know Nothings, and Prohibitionists. Two years later he was with the Republican party, and was one of its greatest leaders in Indiana. In 1860 he was nominated by the Republicans as their candidate for Governor, his opponent being Thomas A. Hendricks. The two entered upon a joint canvass of the State, and spoke together in a majority of the Counties. As a debater Mr. Lane was not the equal of Mr. Hendricks, but as a stumper far surpassed him. Mr. Lane and Andrew Curtin, of Pennsylvania, had more to do with the nomination of Mr. Lincoln for the Presidency than any other two men. Curtin was the candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania, as Lane was in Indiana, and they believed that the nomination of

Seward would be fatal to their success, so they united for Lincoln, and as both States voted in October, they convinced the delegates at Chicago that Lincoln was the only man who could possibly carry those States.

The Democratic party in Indiana was divided on candidates for President, but were united upon the State ticket. The contest was one of the most notable the State has ever witnessed, and it resulted in the election of Mr. Lane. In November the State cast its vote for Mr. Lincoln. The election of Mr. Lincoln was followed by the secession of a number of the Southern States. When the Legislature met, in January, 1861, Mr. Lane took the oath of office as Governor. In his inaugural, speaking of the proposed disruption of the Union, he said:

“The novel, alarming and treasonable assumption that any State in the Union has a right, under the federal constitution, to secede at pleasure is a doctrine unknown to the constitution, at war with the principles on which our Government was established, and destructive of those high and sacred objects sought to be accomplished by the confederation. The doctrine of secession, peaceable or forcible, now or at any other time, is a dangerous heresy, fraught with all the terrible consequences of civil war and bloodshed, and leading directly to the utter ruin of all our institutions. This heresy has not yet poisoned the public sentiment of Indiana, and may God, in His kind providence, put afar off the evil day which shall witness its prevalence among us. I most sincerely believe, and am proud to declare, that the people of Indiana, of all parties, are true to the constitution, and loyal to the Union, and that they will always be in the future, as they have shown themselves to have been in the past, willing to yield a ready and cheerful obedience to all

the requirements of the constitution of the United States, and to maintain and uphold at all times, and under all circumstances, and at every hazzard, the glorious form of free government under which we live."

This was a distinct annunciation on the part of Mr. Lane that he and his party, in Indiana, were in favor of coercion, if necessary, to preserve the Union. The term of Hon. Graham N. Fitch, in the United States Senate was about to expire, and Governor Lane was elected to succeed him. He served as Governor but two days. The war came in April, and at the extraordinary session of Congress, called by President Lincoln, Mr. Lane became active in his support of war measures. He served out his term of six years and then retired to private life. He died at his home in Crawfordsville, June 19, 1881, after an illness of only an hour or two.

ROBERT DALE OWEN.

Among the statesmen of Indiana Robert Dale Owen is entitled to a high place. He was born in Glasgow, Scotland, November 7, 1801. His father was one of the most distinguished men of Scotland at that day. He was distinguished as a successful manufacturer, and as a reformer. One of his dreams was to make the world better through the means of co-operation between employer and employed. To establish the practicability of this scheme he had erected a great factory, and conducted it on those principles, in a town he had built up around his factory. Robert Dale was born to wealth. His father was a believer in the value of education, and gave to his son all the advantages possible in that direction. At the age of sixteen he was sent to Switzerland to continue his studies.

Not long after his return to Scotland his father bought out the possessions of the Rappites, at New Harmony, Indiana, with the intent of founding in this country a model town, where the principal creed should be to do good. Robert Dale came with his father to Indiana, and when the father became disgusted at the failure of his experiment, and returned to Scotland, Robert remained. Both the elder and younger Owen were what may be denominated "free thinkers" in religion. In 1828 Robert went to New York and associated himself with Frances Wright in the publication of a radical journal. It was a publication devoted to social reforms. While in New York he married and soon after returned to Indiana. He gave himself up to study, and to efforts to bring about reforms. At the town of New Harmony he gathered around him philosophers, men of science and men of letters, from all parts of the world, and there they talked and planned of what the world was to be when their great schemes of reform became the order of the day.

His first public office was that of a member of the State Legislature, and there he gave himself to the advancement of the cause of education. It was at the time when the Government was dividing the surplus revenue among the States, and it was mainly through the efforts of Mr. Owen that Indiana set apart two-thirds of the share allotted to her, to become a part of the permanent school fund of the State. He was the first among the public men of Indiana to advocate an enlargement of the rights of married women, especially as to the control and disposition of their own property. His efforts failed at that time, but he did not cease to advocate this measure, by his pen and in public addresses, until he finally scored a triumph. He wielded a great influence in the southwestern part of the State, but met with consider-

able opposition from the churches on account of his free opinions. This opposition defeated him for Congress, in his first race, but he was afterward elected and served two terms. While in Congress he introduced the bill creating the Smithsonian Institute, and for many years was one of the regents.

He was a member of the constitutional convention of 1850, and was one of its marked leaders. He was the author of that clause of the constitution which forbade negroes or mulattoes coming into the State. He lived to be one of the staunchest defenders of the emancipation of the colored race. Early in the war he wrote a letter to President Lincoln urging him to give freedom to the race, which the President declared did more than anything else to fix in his mind the duty of giving them freedom. When the South seceded Mr. Owen gave himself heart and soul to the cause of the Union. Governor Morton sent him to the Eastern cities as an agent of the State of Indiana to purchase arms and clothing for the Indiana troops, and afterward sent him to Europe on the same mission.

While engaged in these duties his pen was not idle, but wherever he could find an opportunity to write or speak for the Union he did so. In 1862 there was much talk in the West of forming a confederacy of the northwestern States, with a view to its ultimate union with the South. Against this heresy Mr. Owen published a powerful pamphlet, and it was as much to his efforts that this heresy was stamped out, as to any other agency. Mr. Owen was employed on several important missions by President Lincoln, and was an earnest friend of that great and good man.

It is for his services in the cause of freeing married women from the shackles imposed by the laws in regard to their property that Mr. Owen will be longest remembered.

As a member of the constitutional convention he endeavored to have engrafted into that instrument the following section:

"Women hereafter married in this State shall have the right to acquire and possess property to their own sole use and disposal; and laws shall be passed securing to them, under equitable conditions, all property, real and personal, whether owned by them before marriage, or acquired afterward by purchase, gift, devise or descent; and providing also for the registration of the wife's separate property."

He failed in securing a majority vote for his proposition, but his speeches in its favor stand out as the ablest made on the floor of the convention on any subject. In one of them he said:

"I appeal to the successful settler, who has raised his cabin first in the wild woods, has gradually opened a flourishing farm, and at last has seen flow in upon him comfort and plenty, whether he alone and unaided built up his fortune and made comfortable his home? I ask him whether there was not one who saved while he accumulated; whether, when his arm was busy without, her hand was idle within? I ask him whether his heart does not revolt at the idea that when he is carried to his long home his widow shall see snatched from her, by an inhuman law, the very property her watchful care had mainly contributed to increase and keep together?"

After the close of the war Mr. Owen devoted himself to literary work, and to such a strain did he put his mental powers that for awhile his brain gave way, but a short rest restored his mind. He died at his cottage on Lake George, June 24, 1877.

ALBERT GALLATIN PORTER.

Albert G. Porter will always be classed among the distinguished men of Indiana. He was born on her soil, and lived all his life among her people. He was born at Lawrenceburg, Dearborn County, April 20, 1824. He early displayed a love for books and evinced a desire for an education. After attending the schools at Lawrenceburg he entered Hanover College. From there he went to Asbury (now DePauw) University, at Greencastle, graduating in 1843. The next year he removed to Indianapolis and entered the office of the Auditor of State, as a clerk. He did not remain long, however, and returned to Lawrenceburg to study law. After completing his studies he returned to Indianapolis and began the practice of his profession. His first public office was that of Attorney for the City of Indianapolis, a place he held for two years. In 1853 a vacancy occurred in the office of Reporter of the Supreme Court, by the death of the incumbent, and Governor Wright appointed Mr. Porter to the vacancy. At the next election he was elected for a full term. He had been a Democrat, and was fast coming to be a leader in that party, when the strife came over the extension of the area of slave territory. He then abandoned his party and threw in his fortunes with the new Republican party. In 1858 he was nominated for Congress by the Republicans of the Indianapolis district and was elected by a majority of more than one thousand, although two years before the district had given the Democratic nominee a majority of nearly one thousand. He was re-elected in 1860, and then declined to be a candidate again. In Congress he took high rank as a ready and able debater, and a

conscientious legislator. So great was his popularity at home that he could have been re-nominated and re-elected term after term, had he so desired.

After retiring from Congress he applied himself diligently to the practice of his profession, but did not lose his interest in politics. He did not seek office, but when a political campaign came his services on the stump were demanded and freely given. In 1877, when Hon. John Sherman became Secretary of the Treasury he tendered to Mr. Porter the position of Comptroller of the Treasury. It was an important office, its duties being wholly legal. He accepted the place, and until 1860 filled it with remarkable dignity and honor. His manners were courtly and pleasing, and he possessed the happy faculty of hearing and determining matters referred to him in such a way that but few ever complained of his decisions. While in Washington a great struggle grew up in his party at home over the nomination for Governor. Among the aspirants for that honor was General A. D. Streight, who had incurred the opposition of the leaders of the party. He was a man of great force of character with a positive disposition. Indiana was then an October State, and four years before had cast its vote for the Democratic ticket. The positive character of General Streight led the leaders of his party to believe he could not be elected, and if Indiana voted in October for the Democratic ticket it was felt the National contest in November would go the same way. They began looking around for some one whose personal popularity was great enough to carry the State, and finally decided upon Mr. Porter. He was consulted, but strongly disliked the idea of again entering upon a race for office, but his objections were overruled, and when the convention met he was nominated, after a short struggle.

Immediately upon being notified of his nomination he resigned his office at Washington and returned to Indiana to enter upon a thorough canvass of the State. He at once took charge of his own campaign, and worked it in his own way. He proved a master hand in managing a political campaign. He went from county to county, held meetings with the members of the party committees, obtained all the information possible about the voters deemed doubtful; interviewed many of those voters, or addressed them personal letters. He soon had the State in a blaze of excitement, and his party filled with enthusiasm. He made speeches day and night, mingled with the voters, and instructed the working committees. The campaign of 1880 will long be remembered as one of the most exciting the State has known. Immense crowds attended the meetings, and the persuasive eloquence of Mr. Porter won the hesitating voter while it gave enthusiasm to the active worker. The campaign resulted in his favor. General Garfield was elected President in the following November. When he began the work of making up his cabinet he desired to give Indiana a place, and the offer was made to General Harrison, but that distinguished gentleman had just been elected to the United States Senate, and declined. It was then offered to Governor Porter, when he also declined, saying that the people had chosen him for the Chief Executive of the State, and he owed it to them to so serve them.

His administration as Governor was a peaceful one. He was wise and thoughtful in his recommendations to the Legislature, careful in his appointments, and conscientious in the discharge of every duty. In 1888 he was selected by the friends of General Harrison to present the name of that distinguished citizen to the Republican National Convention



HON. WILLIAM H. ENGLISH.

as a candidate for the Presidency. When General Harrison was nominated, and the campaign opened, Governor Porter took an active part. He had been solicited to become a candidate again for Governor, but declined. Soon after Mr. Harrison became President Mr. Porter received and accepted the appointment as United States Minister to Italy, and won new honors in the field of diplomacy. At the close of Mr. Harrison's administration Mr. Porter returned to his home in Indianapolis and devoted himself to writing a history of Indiana, for which he had been gathering the material for several years. He died May 3, 1897, before this work was completed.

Mr. Porter's strength before the people rested on his great sympathy. He was persuasively eloquent in his speeches and public addresses, but it was his faculty of putting himself in hearty accord with the people that made his great strength.

WILLIAM H. ENGLISH.

William H. English came from a hardy stock. His father was one of the early pioneers of the State, settling in Scott County, about the time the County was organized, and for many years was a prominent factor in the legislative and political history of the State. His son, William, was born in Scott County in August, 1822. He early developed a love of study, and having chosen the law for his profession was admitted to the Bar at the age of eighteen years. At the early age of twenty-three he was admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States. In those early days all lawyers devoted much of their time to politics, and Mr. English was no exception to the rule, and almost before he had reached his majority he was one of the leaders of his

party in that section of the State. During the administration of President Polk he drifted to Washington and became a clerk in the Treasury Department. He afterward served as clerk of one of the important committees of the Senate. In 1850, he was chosen as Principal Secretary of the convention which framed our present constitution, and became one of the marked members of that distinguished body.

He was elected a member of the first Legislature held under that constitution, and on the resignation of the Speaker of the House, Hon. John W. Davis, owing to a difference between the Speaker and the members of the House, Mr. English was promptly elected to that high office. In 1852, he was elected to Congress, and continued to represent the second district continuously until March, 1861. In Congress, he took a leading part, serving during all those years when the Kansas agitation was shaking the foundations of the Government. He was the author of what was known as the "English Bill," a bill tending to settle the vexed question and restore peace. He left Congress in 1861 with the respect of all parties, and devoted himself to business pursuits. During the war he was a steadfast friend of the Union, and was one of the trusted advisers of Governor Morton, although differing with him politically. He served for some time as Provost Marshal for the second district, and so firm was his administration, yet so careful was he at all times, that there was but little lawlessness in his district.

In 1880, he was nominated by his party for Vice-President on the ticket with General Hancock. He failed of an election, but it left him with a high place in the estimation of the general public. Mr. English was a man of great force of character, and of a very high order of ability. He was conservative by nature, and was always opposed to the

radical measures advocated by either of the parties. His political creed was well announced once in an address he delivered to the Indiana Democratic Editorial Association, when he assured his audience that it was stability and not change the business men of the country wanted; that a policy might not be the best that could have been formulated, but once having been adopted, and the business interests of the country having been adjusted thereto, those interests would be better served by a continuation of that policy, than by changing, so as to create an uncertainty, and making necessary a readjustment of business relations. He was a diligent student of financial problems, and but few prominent men in the country, if any, had a better comprehension of the relations between the Government and the financial interests of the public.

His name was coupled with the position of Secretary of the Treasury, when President Cleveland was forming his first cabinet, and the suggestion was received with marked favor throughout the country. His great knowledge of financial matters, coupled with his standing among the bankers and political leaders, would have made him an ideal head of the Treasury Department.

He will always be regarded as one of the distinguished men of Indiana, both in politics and in business. He spent the last years of his life in preparing a history of the State, devoting to it great research. He completed that part of the work covering the conquest of the Northwest Territory before he died. It will always be a source of great regret that he did not live to accomplish his intent to the full. His proposed work was on a comprehensive plan, including not only a general history of the State, but a full and complete account of the legislation from the very beginning, with

biographical sketches of those who led in the work of founding an empire in this, the heart of the Ohio Valley, and the patient research he had given the preparation of the data would have made the complete work a most valuable contribution to history. He died at his home in Indianapolis, February 7, 1896.

MICHAEL C. KERR.

If not a great man, Michael Crawford Kerr was an honest, faithful and useful public servant. He was a man of pure conscience, strict integrity, and of large ability. He was born near Titusville, Pennsylvania, March 15, 1827. At the age of eighteen he graduated at Erie Academy. He emigrated to Kentucky and there taught school, afterward taking a law course at the Louisville University. In 1852 he removed to New Albany, Indiana, and made that place his home during the remainder of his life. As a lawyer he soon had a good practice, but he gave much of his time to politics, and in 1856, four years after he became a resident of New Albany, he was sent to the State Legislature. In 1860 he was a candidate for Reporter of the Supreme Court, but was defeated by Benjamin Harrison. Mr. Harrison afterward entered the army as Colonel of the Seventieth Indiana Regiment, and it was held that he had vacated his civil office. Mr. Kerr was nominated by his party in 1862 again, and as the opposition did not recognize the claim that Mr. Harrison had vacated his office, no other candidate was voted for, and Mr. Kerr was declared elected. Two years afterward General Harrison was re-elected and the office was surrendered to him. The same year Mr. Kerr was elected to Congress from the New Albany district. He was three times re-elected.

It was during his first race that he set the seal to his claim to be regarded as a loyal and law-abiding citizen. The Knights of the Golden Circle were just then becoming very strong in the State, and had laid a plot to overturn the State Government, kill Governor Morton and throw the State into civil war. About the time of the assembling of the Democratic congressional convention, before which Kerr expected to be a candidate, he became informed of the designs of this secret organization. He at once called together some of his friends and notified them of his discoveries. He declared his intentions to withdraw from the race and to at once go to Indianapolis and lay before the State authorities the information he had obtained, and denounce the plot as one of treason. He was strengthened in his determination to expose the plot by his friends, but persuaded to remain a candidate. As soon as he was nominated he went to Indianapolis, and called a meeting of the prominent Democrats, and boldly and vehemently denounced the schemes of the Knights of the Golden Circle, and communicated to the State authorities what information he possessed.

In 1872, Indiana having been given two more Congressmen, and the State not having been redistricted Mr. Kerr became the candidate of his party for Congressman-at-large, but was defeated by Hon. Godlove S. Orth. Two years later he was again the candidate of his district, and was once more triumphantly elected, and when Congress met in December, 1875, he was elected Speaker of the House, defeating Hon. James G. Blaine, the candidate of the Republicans. He died during his term of office, his death occurring at Rockbridge Springs, Virginia, where he had gone for his health, on August 19, 1876. As Speaker of the House he was very popular with all parties. He was not an orator,

but spoke well on all subjects he undertook to discuss. In Congress he was a working member, always assiduous in attending to his duties. While he was Speaker an attempt was made to blacken his character. Lawrence Harney, a lobbyist, charged that he had, some years previously, paid Mr. Kerr \$450 for securing a position in the regular army for one Augustus P. Greene. A committee was appointed to investigate the charge, and after thoroughly sifting it, reported that there was not one word of truth in the charge. On motion of Mr. Garfield, of Ohio, afterward President, the report of the committee, exonerating Mr. Kerr, was adopted by a rising vote, every member rising to record his approval of the finding of the committee.

THOMAS ANDREWS HENDRICKS.

Thomas A. Hendricks will always stand as one of the great men of Indiana. As a party leader he ranks next to Oliver P. Morton, his great political rival. He easily stands first among the Democrats of the State, both in point of ability as a statesman and as a party leader. He was born on a farm in Muskingum County, Ohio, September 7, 1817. While he was still an infant his parents removed to Indiana, making Madison their home. Not long afterward they removed to Shelbyville, Shelby County, then a frontier village. Thomas received his education in the village schools, and at Hanover College. After leaving college he studied law and began the practice of his profession. He advanced rapidly, and soon became known as a lawyer of great ability. He not only was well versed in the science and intricacies of the law, but had a manner so pleasing, and an eloquence so captivating that he easily took rank at the head of the bar. In



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1850 he was elected a delegate to the convention called to construct a new constitution for the State. He at once became a leader of the majority, in that convention, and his powers as a debater gave him a State fame, and his adroitness gave him a high place in the confidence of his party.

In 1851 he was the candidate of his party, in the Shelbyville district, for Congress, and was elected. He was re-elected the next year, but in 1854 was defeated, owing to a combination of the free soil Democrats and Know Nothings. A few months later he was appointed Commissioner of the General Land Office by President Pierce. In Washington he soon became as popular among the national leaders of his party as he was in Indiana. It mattered not what position he held, he was sure to fill it with dignity and signal ability. In 1860 his party was divided into two factions. The large majority were adherents of Senator Douglas, and the minority of Vice President Breckenridge. When united they had only been able to carry the State, in 1856, by a few thousand plurality, and divided the prospect for success was anything but cheering. In looking for a candidate for Governor, who could unite the two factions in his support, the choice fell unanimously upon Mr. Hendricks. He was the one prominent Democrat who had no enemies in his own party. He possessed a peculiar faculty of pouring oil on the troubled political waters, and keeping the party together, and also of working up the greatest amount of enthusiasm.

The Republicans nominated for the same office, Hon. Henry S. Lane, the most eloquent man in their party, and one, who, like Mr. Hendricks, had no enemies. The two candidates entered upon a joint canvass of the State. Mr. Lane was the more eloquent of the two, but was not the equal of

Mr. Hendricks as a debater. It was a remarkable contest, and notwithstanding the divided condition of the Democratic party, Mr. Hendricks was only defeated by about ten thousand votes. Two years later his party was again in the ascendancy in the State, and he was chosen a member of the United States Senate, for a term of six years. It was during the heat of the civil war, and Mr. Hendricks almost at a bound became one of the recognized Democratic leaders in the Senate. So prominent did he become, and so strongly did he fasten himself in the favor of his party, that his name was frequently mentioned in connection with the nomination for President in 1868. Mr. Hendricks was ambitious to reach that high distinction, and he managed his fight for the nomination with consummate skill. There was a strong feeling in the party that a military leader was necessary to insure success. Another portion of the party favored selecting a candidate from those who had been active in support of the war measures of the Government. Chief Justice Chase had been one of the original leaders of the Republican party, and had been a very strong competitor of Mr. Lincoln, in 1860, and had been his Secretary of the Treasury. When he first entered upon political life he had been a Democrat, but had forsaken that party, on account of its attitude on the slavery question. During Mr. Lincoln's administration he had partly severed his connection with the Republicans, and many Democrats favored his nomination, thinking it would unite, in his favor, many other Democrats who had been acting with the Republicans. Hon. George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, was also a strong candidate.

Under the rule, in Democratic conventions, the successful candidate was required to receive two-thirds of the total vote. Mr. Hendricks did not believe that either General

Hancock, who was the favorite of those seeking a military leader, Mr. Chase or Mr. Pendleton, could be able to receive the necessary two-thirds vote, and that a new man would have to be brought forward. Under his instructions the Indiana delegation was to steadily vote for Mr. Pendleton, who was the candidate of a neighboring State, until the delegates were willing to admit that he had no chance for a nomination. When that time came, the Indiana delegates were to bring forward the name of Mr. Hendricks. Had this counsel been followed, there is little reason for doubting that Mr. Hendricks would have been the nominee of his party, but his Indiana friends thought the time had come for them to change their voting, and withdrew from the convention for consultation. The friends of Mr. Pendleton at once were convinced they had been betrayed, and they worked swiftly and surely to defeat Mr. Hendricks, causing the name of Mr. Seymour, of New York, to be sprung upon the convention, and he was nominated at once.

While still a member of the Senate Mr. Hendricks was again made the nominee for Governor, in 1868, and entered with all his ardor into the campaign work. The result of the election was a great personal triumph for Mr. Hendricks. He was defeated by less than one thousand, while General Grant a month later carried the State, as against Mr. Seymour, by 9,500. Mr. Hendricks was the idol of his party, and four years later was again nominated for Governor, and was elected by 1,148 majority. With one exception he was the only candidate on his ticket elected, the Republicans succeeding in electing a Lieutenant Governor, and all the other State officers, except Superintendent of Public Instruction, and a majority in both branches of the General Assembly. One month later General Grant carried the State by

22,515, over Horace Greeley. Mr. Hendricks' administration as Governor was a prosperous one for the State. In 1876 his friends determined to make another effort to nominate him for the Presidency. The convention decided in favor of Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Mr. Hendricks was unanimously named for the second place. He personally strongly objected to making the race for Vice President, but was overruled by his friends. Having accepted the nomination he determined to again test his personal popularity in Indiana, and he made the supreme fight of his life, and his party was successful, both in October and in November. A contest arising over the electoral votes of some of the States, the matter was referred to a joint commission, raised by Congress for that purpose, and the Republican candidates were - awarded the places.

In 1880 Mr. Hendricks longed for the nomination, but a feeling was strong in the party that the ticket of 1876 ought to be re-nominated, and make another effort before the people, but to this Mr. Hendricks would not consent, and General Hancock was made the candidate of the party. Four years later Mr. Hendricks was again a candidate, but Grover Cleveland, of New York, carried away the prize and once more Mr. Hendricks was unanimously nominated for the second place. This was very repugnant to him, but he finally accepted, at the earnest solicitation of the party leaders. The Republicans had nominated Mr. Blaine, who had been very strong in Indiana, but Mr. Hendricks once more appealed to his fellow citizens, and carried his ticket triumphantly through. He took the oath of office, as Vice President, on the 4th of March, 1885. As President of the Senate his urbane manners, and his strict impartiality won him additional friends. He differed with Mr. Cleveland on ques-



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tions of party policy, and an estrangement grew up between them. Mr. Hendricks died suddenly on November 25, 1885.

SCHUYLER COLFAX.

Although not a native of the State, Schuyler Colfax was, in every sense a product of Indiana. He was born in New York, March 23, 1823. When but a lad he came with his parents to Indiana, where they settled in St. Joseph County. All the education he ever received, by attendance on schools, was before he was ten years of age, but he was always a careful student throughout life. He received the appointment as Deputy Auditor of St. Joseph County, and while acting in that capacity studied law. He engaged in newspaper work before he was twenty years old, his first work in that line being as reporter of the proceedings of the General Assembly for the Indianapolis Journal. He afterwards became editor of the St. Joseph Register, and displayed such talent as an editor, as to soon become one of the most influential newspaper writers in the State. In 1848, when he was only twenty-six years of age, he was a delegate to the National convention of the Whigs, and was chosen Secretary of that body. In 1850 he was a member of the convention which framed the present constitution of the State, and was regarded as one of the ablest, although one of the youngest members. In 1851 he was nominated by the Whigs for Congress, but was defeated by Hon. Graham N. Fitch, afterwards a member of the United States Senate. In 1852 he was again a delegate to the Whig National convention.

Two years later he was again a candidate for Congress and was elected by a handsome majority. Six times he was re-elected. His Congressional campaigns were counted as among the most brilliant known in the political history of

the State. In Congress he soon took a leading position and was counted among the best debaters. In 1863 he was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, and re-elected in 1865 and 1867. He was known as one of the ablest Speakers the House had ever had. He was quick and ready with his decisions, and was a perfect master of parliamentary law. During his service on the floor of the House, he had held several important committee places, and had become a warm friend and adviser of President Lincoln. During his Speakership it is doubtful if there had ever been a man in public life in this country, more personally popular. In 1868 he was nominated for Vice President, on the ticket with General Grant, and was elected. His term of service as Speaker of the House ended upon the very day he took his seat as President of the Senate.

While serving as Vice President the Credit Mobilier scandal was brought to light, and Mr. Oakes Ames, the principal engineer of the Credit Mobilier scheme, attempted to connect the name of Mr. Colfax with it. It was developed that Mr. Colfax had agreed to purchase some of the stock, but had withdrawn from the agreement before the stock was transferred. The public sentiment was just then so exercised over the scandal that Mr. Colfax, at the end of his term as Vice President, voluntarily retired to private life. He devoted himself to lecturing, and added greatly to his fame. He died suddenly at Mankato, Minnesota, in a railroad station. He was the first Indianian to receive a nomination for the Vice Presidency by either of the leading parties. One had preceded him as Speaker of the National House of Representatives, but he only served one term.

OLIVER PERRY MORTON.

No other public man of Indiana has been so closely interwoven with the history of the State as Oliver Perry Morton. He came into public life at the birth of a great political party, a party which for twenty-five years controlled the destinies of the Nation, at the most important crisis of its political existence. He became the Governor of the State just before the breaking out of the War of the Rebellion, and for six years acted as the chief magistrate of the State where his great executive ability had full opportunity. From the chair of the chief executive of the State he stepped to a seat in the United States Senate when the re-construction of the Union was the absorbing topic, where his powers as a debater had full swing, and made him one of the most prominent figures in the Nation. The opportunities came and found the man ready. Other Governors Indiana has had, but none who had the same opportunities to win lasting and honorable fame as a Governor. It was in the hey day of his youth, when he took the oath of office as Governor of the Commonwealth, when he was full of physical and mental vigor, and although the youngest of the Governors of the loyal States, within a few months he became the best known of the War Governors, and the trusted friend and adviser of Lincoln, Stanton, Grant, and the other great leaders of the Union, and upon him they all relied, and to him they instinctively turned in every crisis.

Oliver Perry Morton was born, August 4, 1823, in Wayne County, Indiana. He attended the schools of Wayne County, and afterward went to Miami University, in Ohio. His bent was to the law, and after a course of study he was

admitted to the Bar and began the practice. It was not long until he became one of the leading lawyers of Eastern Indiana. He rose rapidly in his profession. His mind was of the analytical kind, and he was a hard student.

As all young lawyers did in those days, he entered with zest into politics. He was a Democrat, and before he had hardly reached his majority was classed as one of the leaders of his party in that section of the State, and within half a dozen years was known as one of the State leaders. When slavery became the absorbing issue, and the attempt was made to strike down the Missouri compromise, he left his party and united with those who opposed the further extension of slavery. The Republican party was just then being organized, and with it he threw in his fortunes. Already famed as a political debater of extraordinary powers, he at once became the leader of the new party in Indiana. In 1856, when the new party met to nominate a State ticket, Mr. Morton was selected as its candidate for Governor. He at once entered upon an active campaign of the State. His opponent was Hon. Ashbel P. Willard, then the foremost orator among the Democrats. As an orator Mr. Willard had few equals, and in Indiana had no superior. He was the idol of his party, and with the people was wonderfully popular. It was against him the leader of the new party was pitted.

With but rare exceptions Indiana had been under the control of the Democratic party from the very organization of the State Government. When the Whig party had died that of the Know Nothings had sprung into an ephemeral existence, and in 1856 they were still strong in the State. Many old Whigs had united with the Democrats, and many Democrats had followed Morton into the camp of the new

party. So far the new party was in a chrysalis state. It sprung into existence in a revolt against the extension of slavery, and had gathered into its folds, the Free Soil Democrats, some of the old Whigs, some of the Know Nothings and some of the Abolitionists. Its elements were many and were as inharmonious as they were varied. Practically they agreed as touching only one thing—opposition to slavery. The Abolitionists wanted abolition pure and simple; the Free Soil Democrats and the Old Line Whigs were willing to let slavery alone where it existed, but opposed its extension into new territory; the Know Nothings, or at least many of them, cared but little about slavery, but were opposed to Democracy.

It was as the chosen leader of these inharmonious elements Mr. Morton entered public life. He had a party to organize and mold into a perfect working machine, as well as to struggle for the highest office in the State. He gave his days to speech making before the people, and his nights to organization, and to directing the efforts of his party friends. Those who knew him best were amazed at the amount of work he performed. Within less than one month he demonstrated that he was not only one of the ablest political debaters the State had ever produced, but was the most subtle, the most perfect of party organizers. Before the close of the campaign his new party was welded together, with able and astute leaders in every County, and the leaders were all "Morton men." In the campaign the Democrats had the prestige of years of victory. Their party organization had long been perfect. Jesse D. Bright, their ablest party manipulator, gave all his powers to holding his party intact. Willard, with his wonderful oratory stirred the hearts of his followers as they had never been

stirred before. Joseph A. Wright, who for seven years had been Governor of the State, and was ranked as the most successful canvasser any party in the State had known exerted all his powers to stem the tide that was setting in against his party. It was one of the remarkable political campaigns in the history of the State. Four years before the Democrats had carried the State by a little more than 20,000 majority. In 1856 Morton was defeated by less than 6,000.

After the close of the campaign Mr. Morton returned to the practice of his profession, but was still looked upon as the real leader of his party. When it came time to select a ticket in 1860, new combinations came up. There was still a large remnant of the Know Nothings and it was thought they held the balance of power in the State; then it was thought that Mr. Morton's past Democratic record kept many Old Line Whigs from voting with the Republicans. For success it was necessary to combine all the elements of opposition, and it was determined to put at the head of the ticket Hon. Henry S. Lane, who had long been known as the "silver-tongued orator," and who was, or had been throughout life identified with the Whig party, and to give Morton the second place on the ticket. To this Morton strongly objected, urging that four years before he had led a forlorn hope, and that it was mainly through his efforts the party had come so near victory, and for him to accept the second place on the ticket would be to practically retire him from public life. It was finally, on the understanding that if the party met with success, Mr. Lane was to be sent to the Senate, and this would let Mr. Morton in as Governor, that he consented to accept the place. Once more he threw himself into the work of organization, and of canvassing the State.

His ticket was successful, and in the January following he became the acting Governor.

Before he became Governor he had attracted the attention of Mr. Lincoln and the country through a speech made at Indianapolis a few evenings after the November election. The Republicans had met to rejoice over the election of Mr. Lincoln and Mr. Morton was among the speakers. He took strong ground for coercion in case any of the Southern States seceded. In that speech he declared he would rather come out of a seven years' war defeated than to admit without a contest the right of secession. Within a week after the Legislature met in January, 1861, Governor Lane was elected to the Senate, to succeed Hon. Graham N. Fitch, and Morton became Governor. In less than two months war came. It was then that Governor Morton had his opportunity to display his wonderful executive ability on a broader scale than in organizing a political party. From that time to the close of the war he was the forefront of the Union sentiment in Indiana and the West. His energy kept the State always abreast of the demands of the Government for troops. His zeal and foresight outran that of the Government. He was the first to see that the war was to be a long one and that arms and supplies would have to be brought from Europe, and very early in the contest he sent an agent to Europe to make purchases on behalf of the State.

He was specially energetic in caring for the comfort of Indiana troops, and sent agents everywhere to look after them. He labored assiduously in their behalf. He made appeals to the people of Indiana for hospital supplies; chartered steamers and railroad trains to send them to the front, and sent agents with them to superintend their distribution.

It was to him that Generals in command in Kentucky

turned whenever danger threatened that State, and he astonished the people and other Governors by the rapidity with which he dispatched troops and armaments. At one time it was seriously considered by the President to make him a Major General of volunteers and put him in command in Kentucky. It will be remembered that Kentucky at first assumed a status of neutrality. To one of Governor Morton's peculiar make-up, such a thing was very abhorrent, and he urged almost daily that the Government should move troops into Kentucky and protect the loyal element. In the State he urged men of all parties to come to the help of the Government, and was especially solicitous to give commands in the field to Democrats. In this his open object was to bring all parties into unison in supporting the Government, but it was wise politics, for by far the larger portion of those officers eventually allied themselves with the Republicans.

He was one among the first and the most persistent in urging the Government to open the Mississippi River, contending that it would do more to end the rebellion and prevent foreign nations from interfering than anything else that could be done. For two years he had comparatively smooth sailing, in the affairs of the State. The majority of the Legislature and all the State officers were of his party, and they cordially supported him. In 1862, however, the election went in favor of the Democrats, and when the Legislature met a decidedly hostile feeling toward Morton and his policy was manifested. No appropriations were made to carry on the State Government or to pay the interest on the State debt. It was then the Governor made a bold move, disregarding the constitution and the laws. He borrowed from bankers and others hundreds of thousands of dollars,

with which to meet the expenses of the State, and to pay the interest on the debt. He organized a financial bureau of his own and disbursed that money, ignoring the State officers entirely. It was a bold move, and at the time met the support of his party, and the next session of the General Assembly so far endorsed his action as to order the money borrowed to be repaid out of the State treasury.

Several attempts were made upon his life. The most notable one was when the Knights of the Golden Circle conspired to kill him and seize upon the State Government. In 1864 he was again the candidate of his party for Governor, and this time the tide was in favor of the Republicans and he was triumphantly elected. His arduous services continued until the close of the war. The winter of 1864-5 was an especially trying one, and Governor Morton was on the move almost continually. He was frequently called to Washington to advise with the President, and at other times he was at the front, looking after the wants of Indiana soldiers, visiting the hospitals, and the troops in the field. His wonderful vitality kept him up, but it was afterward seen that he had overtaxed his strength. The re-action came when the long struggle was over and the troops had returned to their home. In the summer of 1865 he was suddenly stricken with paralysis in the lower part of his body. The paralysis did not affect his mental powers for they appeared to grow stronger until his death, which did not occur until November 1, 1877.

It appearing that no help could be had in this country for his affliction, he determined to visit Paris, to consult the eminent physicians of that city. He called the Legislature together in extraordinary session, and turned the administration of the affairs of the State over to Lieutenant Gov-

ernor Conrad Baker, and sailed almost immediately afterward for Paris. At that time Maximillian was on the throne in Mexico, and Governor Morton received instructions from the President and Secretary of State, to take occasion to urge upon the Emperor Napoleon, that a longer stay of the French troops in Mexico would be regarded as an unfriendly act by this Government. It has been claimed that it was the representations made by Governor Morton which induced the French Emperor to order his troops home from Mexico, a movement which resulted in the final overthrow of Maximillian.

Governor Morton remained abroad for several months but received no permanent benefit from the treatment. In January, 1867, he was elected to a seat in the United States Senate to succeed Hon. Henry S. Lane. His prestige as Governor, and his reputation as a great political debater, at once gave him a prominent position in the Senate, and he soon became the acknowledged leader of his party in that body. He took an active part in the legislation of that period, and in the discussion of re-construction measures he was ever foremost. Sumner, Conkling and others of the old leaders of the party were there, but Morton was the leader. It was at the time of the struggle between President Johnson and Congress, and Morton became the leader of those who opposed the policy of the President. It was due to him more than to any other man that the amendments to the constitution on the rights of the colored people were ratified by the requisite number of States.

All this time he maintained his hold upon his party in Indiana. He had little of the conciliatory spirit in his nature, and did not brook any revolt against his leadership. He made enemies in his own party, but he trampled upon

them instead of endeavoring to placate them. During the Presidency of General Grant he was one of the most trusted advisers of the Government, and on one occasion the President tendered him the British Ministry. It was at the time when the feeling in both countries was embittered over the claims on account of the Alabama depredations. At that time it was doubtful how the next election might result in Indiana, and should it be in favor of the Democrats, a member of that party would be chosen to succeed him in the Senate, so, true to his party instincts he declined the offer. In 1873 he was re-elected to the Senate. By the time he began his second term no one disputed the leadership in the Senate with him. His name began to be associated with the nomination by his party for the Presidency. He was without doubt the ablest man in his party at that day. He was regarded as being radical on the doctrine of re-construction, and upon the subordination of the States to the Union, but his radicalism met with the support of the strongest element of his party. He polled a strong vote in the convention at Cincinnati, and it has been thought that had it not been for fears entertained on account of his physical disability he would have been nominated.

The election resulted in a dispute over the electoral vote of several of the Southern States, which for a time threatened the overturning of the Government. A contest was made of the vote of Louisiana, Florida, South Carolina, and of one elector in Oregon. A graver crisis never presented itself. Party feeling had run high, and fears were entertained that bloodshed would follow the attempt to inaugurate Mr. Hayes, who had been declared elected by the vote of the electors. In Congress it was proposed to meet the crisis by submitting the whole question of the disputed

votes to a commission of fifteen created for the special purpose; five were to be chosen by the House of Representatives, five by the Senate, and five taken from the members of the Supreme Court. Senator Morton opposed this proposition with all his powers. He claimed that under the constitution the President of the Senate was alone empowered to count the vote and declare the result; that he could only count such votes as had been properly certified to him, and that his power and right to count the votes could not be taken from him and delegated to others, nor could any authority be given to others to determine what votes he should count. He further contended that no commission could be made up whose decision would be satisfactory; that it was proposed to divide the commission as nearly equal as possible between the two parties, and take as the fifteenth member one not closely identified with either party, and it was possible the commission would divide on the more important questions involved, and in that case one man's vote would determine the result; that should it happen the commission divided on party lines the members would be accused of letting their party feelings control their action.

The feeling for compromise was too strong, however, and the bill became a law, and then what Senator Morton had predicted actually happened. The commission did divide on all important questions on party lines. Notwithstanding his opposition to the measure Senator Morton was chosen at the head of the Senatorial part of the commission, over Senator Conkling who had been the champion of the bill. By the law the decision of the contested votes was left to the commission and its decision was to be binding, and make the title to the Presidency good, but it failed of proving satisfactory to either party.



HON. BENJAMIN HARRISON.

Among other things Senator Morton took strong ground in favor of electing a President by a direct vote of the people, doing away with the Electoral College. One of the ablest speeches he made during his Senatorial career was on this question. During the later years of his service in the Senate he was chairman of the committee on elections and privileges. In 1877, with a part of his committee he visited Oregon. This was his last public service. He returned from the journey completely broken down in health. He lingered until the first of November, when his life ended.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

Benjamin Harrison has taken his place among the great statesmen of the country. He is the only citizen of Indiana that has reached the highest political position in this country, and the highest, as Americans are wont to declare, in the world. In that high position he proved himself the peer of any man who had preceded him. Benjamin Harrison was born at North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833. His father had been a member of Congress, his grandfather had been a Major General in the army, a Senator in Congress, and President of the United States. His great grandfather had been Governor of Virginia, member of the Continental Congress, and as such had signed the Declaration of Independence. Thus he came from an ancestry distinguished in the service of the country. Mr. Harrison was educated at Miami University, studied law and made Indianapolis his home. He began his professional life poor in this world's goods, but strong in intellect, and in his knowledge of his profession. He was also strong in his conscientious regard for the right. He began to climb the professional ladder slowly but surely.

He soon developed great skill as an attorney, but in those days in Indiana men did not get to the top of the ladder by leaps and bounds, but by steady, persistent climbing. So it was that the young advocate from Ohio made his way. He entered into politics and it was on the stump he established his greatest reputation at that time. He was a speaker of remarkable force and clearness, and as young as he was, he was soon recognized as one of the strongest political debaters the young Republican party had in Indiana. So well was his ability recognized that in 1860, when he had been in the State but five years, he was made the nominee of his party, for the responsible position of Reporter of the decisions of the Supreme Court. He entered at once upon a canvass of the State, and added to his reputation as a speaker. He was then but twenty-seven years of age, slight and boyish in figure, but his cogent reasoning, his strong, terse way of putting things before his audience, made him one of the marked men of the campaign. The tickets of the two parties that year were both far above the average in ability. On the Republican side were Henry S. Lane, "the silver-tongued orator," and the most captivating speaker in the State, if not in all the West; Oliver P. Morton, who four years before had proved himself a giant in political debate; and who had contested for political honors with Ashbel P. Willard, the eloquent and zealous champion of Democracy, and Benjamin Harrison. Among the Democrats were Thomas A. Hendricks, ready in debate, persuasive in eloquence, captivating in manners; David Turpie, even then keen, incisive and bitter, and Michael C. Kerr, who afterward became Speaker of the National House of Representatives. Six as able political debaters were never pitted against each other in the State, and among them Mr. Harrison was entitled to stand.

The contest resulted in the election of the Republican ticket. Mr. Harrison took the office to which he had been elected, and its emoluments were a welcome addition to his income. The war followed, and it was not long before he began to turn over in his mind the question as to his duty. In 1862 he tendered his services to Governor Morton, and was appointed Colonel of the Seventieth Regiment. He left his office and took up the duties of a soldier. His regiment was sent to the front, and soon became known as one of the best in the service. Through Kentucky, Tennessee and Georgia it fought its way to Atlanta. At Resaca it especially distinguished itself, by making a desperate charge upon the enemy. From Atlanta it followed Sherman to Savannah, and then up through the Carolinas to the grand review at Washington.

The office of Reporter of the Supreme Court, to which he had been elected in 1860, carried with it a term of four years, but it had been declared that he had vacated it by accepting an office in the army, so in 1864, when his term would have expired had he remained in office, he was again nominated by his party, and was once more elected. In every political campaign he took a prominent part, and in 1872 was a candidate for the nomination for Governor, but was defeated in the convention by General Thomas A. Browne. He diligently pursued his profession, and became known as one of the ablest lawyers in the State, if not the ablest. In 1876 the Republicans nominated Hon. Godlove S. Orth, as their candidate for Governor, but in the heat of the campaign, and when the election was only six weeks off, he withdrew from the ticket, and the party committee put General Harrison in his place. Mr. Hendricks was leading the Democratic ticket, as a candidate for Vice President, and the campaign

was a most exciting one. General Harrison was absent from the State when he was substituted for Mr. Orth, but came home and at once entered upon a canvass of the the State, which for power has seldom been equaled. He was defeated before the people, but was stronger with his party than ever before.

When the great campaign of 1880 opened, by almost common consent it was understood that if his party was successful he was to be made United States Senator. His party was successful, and he received the caucus nomination and was duly elected, and entered upon the discharge of his new duties March 4, 1881. After his election, and before he took his seat President Garfield offered him a place in his cabinet, but he preferred to go to the Senate. In his new sphere he soon became known as one of the strongest debaters in that body, and took a front rank among the leaders of his party. His race for a re-election, in 1886, will long be remembered as one of the most exciting political campaigns the State has known, and especially for an election at which no Governor or President were to be voted for. At the two preceding elections the Democrats had carried the State, and it was expected they would have a large majority in the Legislature on joint ballot. Mr. Harrison organized his campaign with great political shrewdness, and when the returns were in, it was found that the vote of the two parties would be a tie on joint ballot. The balloting for Senator continued from January 18 to February 2, when Hon. David Turpie was elected. This result was brought about by the action of the Senate on a contested election case.

The friends of Mr. Harrison at once set about the work of securing for him the nomination of the party for President, at the next National convention. His name had been

used in connection with the nomination in 1884, and his conspicuous services in the Senate had drawn the attention of the country to him. His party in Indiana declared for him, and thus put him formally before the country.

The convention met at Chicago, in June. A number of candidates were before it, among them being Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, Mr. Allison, of Iowa, and Judge Walter Q. Gresham, then, also of Indiana. Mr. Blaine also had a strong following, notwithstanding he had declared he could not be a candidate. The contest was one of great excitement, and the result was in great doubt. Mr. Harrison gained from the start, in the balloting, and on the eighth ballot was nominated. Then followed a wonderful campaign, in which General Harrison displayed powers and resources as an orator, which astonished the world. From the day of his nomination until the election he was visited, almost daily, by delegations from some section of the country, and he addressed each one, and his political enemies declared that such speech-making had never been known. His speeches were all characterized by intense Americanism. He was elected and took his seat, March 4, 1889.

His administration was characterized by a firm adherence to the Americanism so often enunciated in his speeches, and was remarkably free from scandals of every kind. It was an era of high tide prosperity for the country, and was made notable by several international questions, the most important being that regarding the seal fishing in the Alaskan waters. It was finally settled by arbitration. A difficulty arose with Chili, over an attack made upon some of the sailors of an American war vessel, but that, too, was settled, Chili apologizing for the act and paying an indemnity. A mob in New Orleans killed several Italians. President

Harrison at once acknowledged the liability of the Federal Government for the outrage, and an indemnity was paid to the families of the victims. His administration was ever firm in its attitude upon all international questions, and won respect at home and abroad. The great Congress of American Republics was held during his administration, and much was done to strengthen the influence of the United States with the Spanish-American Governments.

In 1892 he was nominated again by his party, but was defeated at the election by Grover Cleveland, whom he had beaten four years before. At the end of his term he returned to his home in Indianapolis, taking with him, in his retirement from public life, the confidence and respect of all parties.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

In 1816, just a month or two before Indiana was admitted into the Union as one of the sisterhood of States, among the immigrants, seeking a home in the wilderness was one that deserves more than a passing notice, for his fame has filled the world, and with Americans he stands by the side of Washington. One evening at the little horse ferry, on the Ohio River, near the mouth of Anderson's Creek, in Spencer County, appeared a wagon loaded with the few household goods of the father of Abraham Lincoln. Few men could have been poorer than was Thomas Lincoln. In the front of the wagon sat his wife and their nine-year old daughter, while the father and son, then a little more than seven years of age, followed after, driving the cow. All their worldly possessions they had with them. To all ordinary appearances the future had but little in store for any of them. Out among the hills of Spencer county the little

family wandered, searching for a home. A farm near where the town of Gentryville now stands was selected and the work of putting up a small cabin begun. In that humble cabin Abraham Lincoln lived for thirteen years; there he received all the schooling he ever had, and it was from there he made his first trip as a flat-boatman to New Orleans, and it was on that trip he first witnessed the horrors of slavery—horrors that forced from him the involuntary vow that if ever he got an opportunity to “hit that thing, I will hit it hard, by the Eternal God!” It was there also that he lost his



INDIANA CABIN HOME OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

mother, and there her dust still remains. His life in his Indiana home was one of toil and privation; toil in assisting his father to clear off the timber from the farm and preparing the soil for cultivation. In those days there was not much in the future to encourage the young farmer, but he kept industriously at his work, gathering up what little stores of knowledge he could from his occasional opportunities for attending school and from reading such books as he could borrow from his neighbors.

A few months before he arrived at the age of twenty-one

he went with his father to Illinois. His after history is known to the world. This long, angular boy from the hills of Indiana, became the great President of the country, guiding her destinies amid the clash of arms with a wisdom that now seems almost greater than human. Whence came the wonderful insight of the motives which move men? Whence came his knowledge of diplomacy? Born in the wilderness of Kentucky, reared to manhood among the hills of Indiana, and trained on the prairies of Illinois, he surpassed in all true greatness all the great men of his time. He was a greater diplomat than his world-renowned Secretary of State; he had a broader grasp of the fundamental principles of national financiering, than his Secretary of the Treasury; he was wiser in politics than all the politicians of his time, and displayed the elements of a great commander. It was the testimony of all his Generals who came in personal contact with him, that had he taken active command in the field he would have been a great strategist. With an abiding faith in the future of the country, he clung to the idea of the Union with a tenacity that never gave way to despair, or even to doubt. Noble and great hearted, he was ever ready to extend the hand of peace to those in armed resistance to his authority. He was derided and reviled during the four years of struggle, but never reviled back again.

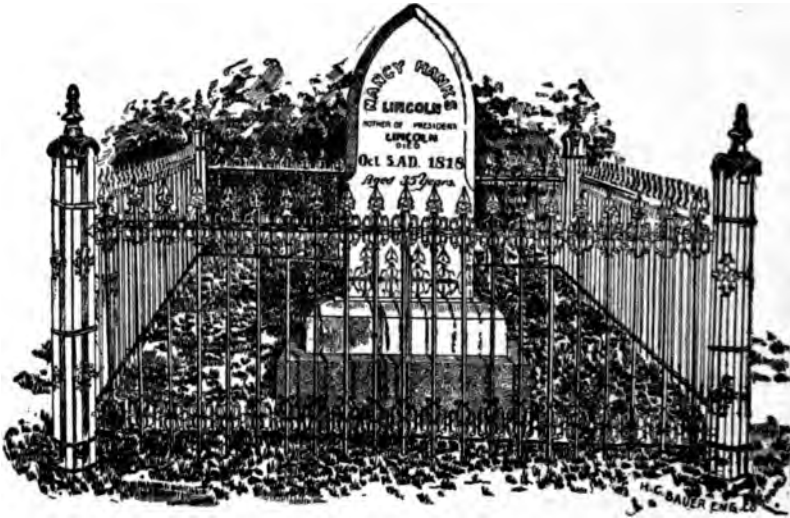
His addresses will always stand as models, while the English language remains. He had the faculty of conveying a rebuke, of declining to yield to the solicitations of others, without offending the self love, of those rebuked or humiliating those to whose solicitations he refused to yield, that was remarkable, and stamped him a great man. A thousand stories are told of his patience, and the apt way in which he rebuked those who offered impertinent advice, but

the following not only illustrates his aptitude in this direction, but is a complete sermon on unselfish patriotism: When the Merrimac, the great armed cruiser of the Confederates was preparing to break loose from Norfolk, and start upon what the Confederates fondly believed would be a work of destruction, not only of the shipping of the Union, but of all the seaboard cities, the people of New York became very much frightened, and a public meeting was held to express the gravity of the situation. A delegation of fifty gentlemen, representing in their own right \$100,000,000, was selected to go to Washington and see the President and urge upon him the necessity of sending gunboats to protect New York city. They called upon Mr. Lincoln, and their spokesman was very careful to impress upon the President that the men who formed the delegation were worth \$100,000,000. Mr. Lincoln listened to them patiently and then said:

"Gentlemen, I am, by the constitution, Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States, and as a matter of law I can order anything done that is practicable to be done; but as a matter of fact, I am not in command of the gunboats or ships of war—as a matter of fact I do not know exactly where they are, but presume they are actively engaged. It is impossible for me, in the condition of things, to furnish you a gunboat. The credit of the Government is at a very low ebb, greenbacks are not worth more than forty or fifty cents on the dollar, and in this condition of things, if I was worth half as much as you gentlemen are represented to be, and as badly frightened as you seem to be, I would build a gunboat and give it to the Government."

This great and wise statesman; this pure and unselfish patriot, grew from childhood to manhood in Indiana, and a tribute to his memory has a right to a place in a history of

the State. In a lonely spot, near a little village now called Lincoln City, is the grave of his mother. It was uncared for



GRAVE OF THE MOTHER OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

until a few years ago, when a small monument was erected over it, by a private citizen, and the lot was surrounded by an iron fence. It ought to be the property of the Nation.



JOHN BROWN DILLON.



JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.



GEN. LEW WALLACE.



JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY.



JACOB PIATT DUNN.

CHAPTER XXXI.

NOTED INDIANA AUTHORS.

It is hard to determine who was the first citizen of Indiana to publish in book form the creations of his pen, but William Maclure, Thomas Say, and Francis Neef, all of New Harmony were very early in the field with their publications. They wrote altogether upon scientific or educational topics, and their writings are still regarded as authority on the various topics discussed. Indiana has produced quite a number of citizens who have written much on scientific topics, for magazines and papers, besides what has been gathered into book form. In this chapter it is not proposed to deal with those who have written on such topics, but with those who have made a distinguished position for themselves in the world of literature. Nor will it be possible to even name all those who have written and published, for it is not designed to make an Indiana bibliography. There are a number of men whose names stand high in the literary world, who were born in Indiana, but whose fame has come to them while being citizens of other States. The two most notable in this class are Joaquin Miller, the poet of the Sierras, and John Hay, the eminent poet, and joint author of the *Life of Abraham Lincoln*.

The earliest Indiana writers turned to the muses for their inspiration, and more than half a century ago some of them had won more than a local fame. Their writings are

now nearly all out of print, and their names almost forgotten. Mrs. Sarah T. Bolton, however, who was one of the earliest of the Indiana poets won a fame that passed beyond the boundaries of the State, and her writings still hold a place in the libraries. Edward Eggleston was one of the first to win a recognition in the field of fiction. His writings were much more popular in the East than in Indiana, where the scenes of his stories are laid. On the fair fame of Indiana his writings have had a most damaging effect. His eastern readers have taken his characters, as he described them, to be representatives of the people of the Hoosier State, and thus a very erroneous opinion of the intelligence and culture of the people of Indiana has grown up. His characters are no more representative of Indiana than they are of any other State in the Union. In fact they are but caricatures and not true likenesses. When he has attempted to put a dialect into the mouths of his characters he has invented one the like of which has never been heard within the boundaries of Indiana.

Robert Dale Owen, Richard W. Thompson, Will Cumback, William H. English, W. P. Fishback, Maurice Thompson, have each won enviable distinction in the field of literature. Rosa Hardwick Tharp, author of that most touching poem, "The Curfew Shall Not Ring to Night," was a native of Indiana. Indiana has furnished quite a number of distinguished newspaper writers to other States, and some of them have entered the field of literature.

JOHN BROWN DILLON.

Indiana's first historian was John Brown Dillon. He it was who first entered the field of research, and from the old, musty files of the Canadian and Colonial archives dug out the story of the early explorations of the French trap-

pers and missionaries, and the attempts to settle this part of the Ohio Valley. Mr. Dillon was born in Brooke County, West Virginia, not far from Steubenville, Ohio. He gathered what education he could from the country schools of those days, which was not very much, and at an early age apprenticed himself to learn the printing trade. From Charlestown, West Virginia, he soon migrated to Cincinnati. He was of a studious nature, and gave all his spare moments to the securing of information upon all questions. Especially was his mind given toward the legends and stories of the early settlers, and as a youth he gathered up many a story he afterwards put in print.

He also cultivated the muses, and was a poet of a high order. Many of his poetical effusions were printed in the *Gazette* and other papers of Cincinnati. Some of them were of extraordinary merit, for their delicate imagery. The following, entitled "The Burial of the Beautiful," is worthy a place in any collection of American poets:

THE BURIAL OF THE BEAUTIFUL.

Where shall the dead, and the beautiful sleep?
In the vale where the willow and cypress weep;
Where the wind of the west breathes its softest sigh;
Where the silvery stream is flowing nigh,
And the pure, clear drops of its rising sprays,
Glitter like gems in the bright moon's rays—
Where the sun's warm smile may never dispel
Night's tears o'er the form we love so well—
In the vale where the sparkling waters flow;
Where the fairest, earliest violets grow;
Where the sky and the earth are softly fair,
Bury her there—bury her there!

Where shall the dead, and the beautiful sleep?
Where the wild flowers bloom in the valley deep;
Where the sweet robes of spring may softly rest;
In purity over the sleeper's breast;
Where is heard the voice of the sinless dove,
Breathing notes of deep and undying love;
Where no column proud in the sun may glow,
To mock the heart which is resting below;
Where pure hearts are sleeping, forever blest;
Where wandering Peris love to rest;
Where the sky and the earth are softly fair,
Bury her there—bury her there.

From Cincinnati Mr. Dillon removed to Logansport, Indiana, where he entered upon the practice of the law. His mind was too full of historical research, and his love for literature too great to leave him satisfied with the details of the law, and in 1842 he removed to Indianapolis, and the next year his "Historical Notes," were published. About that time he began the work of preparing his History of Indiana, which was published some years later. From 1845 to 1850 he served as State Librarian. In 1851 he became Assistant Secretary of State, and was for years the Secretary of the Indiana Agricultural Society. In 1861 he became Custodian of the Library of the Interior Department, at Washington, which position he held until 1870. Some two or three years afterward he returned to Indianapolis, where he died January 21, 1879.

As a historian he was peculiarly painstaking and laborious. The truth was what he sought after at all times. He took nothing for granted, but explored everything for himself. His mind was a richly-stored warehouse of facts and dates connected with the earliest history of the country. His most pretentious work, and the one that ought to bring his lasting fame, was his "Oddities of Colonial Legislation

and Condensed America," printed in 1879, after his death. It is full of the most valuable information of the early days of the colonies, and is especially valuable as a book of ready reference as to the important events in the history of the country.

WILLIAM WESLEY WOOLLEN.

Among the historical writers of Indiana William Wesley Woollen takes high rank. He was born in Dorchester County, Maryland, June 21, 1828. In 1844 when but sixteen years of age he started out for himself, the "great West" being his destined point. He landed at Madison, in December, with but one dollar in his pocket. He soon found employment as a school teacher, and in due time entered himself as a student at Hanover College. On leaving college he secured employment in one of the offices of the County, utilizing his spare time in studying law. He served in subordinate capacities for several years in one or other of the County offices until he was finally appointed Auditor to fill a vacancy, and was then elected Treasurer. In 1857 he engaged in banking, a pursuit he followed more or less for many years. He had a wide acquaintance with the prominent men of the State and in 1883 published a volume of biographical and historical sketches of early Indiana, a work that has maintained a deserved popularity. Mr. Woollen has always been a student of Indiana history, and has written much on that subject, in addition to the volume mentioned.

JACOB PIATT DUNN.

By the time Mr. Dunn had reached the age of thirty years he had won for himself fame as an historical writer. The turning of his mind to that class of writing may almost be termed an accident, but the country at large, and Indiana

especially, is the gainer from it. Mr. Dunn is a native of Indiana, having been born in Lawrenceburg, April 12, 1855. He was educated in the public schools of Indianapolis and at Earlham College, graduating from that institution. After his graduation Earlham bestowed upon him the degree of M. A. He also took a course in the Law Department of Ann Arbor. After leaving that institution, he went to Colorado, and there drifted into newspaper work. He did not find any place that suited him better than Indiana, however, and returned to his native State. While in the West he had heard much of the Indians, and of the conflicts which had occurred between them and the whites, but had no thought of ever turning what he heard to practical use in the way of writing history.

Not long after his return to Indiana, he came across a recent publication on pioneer life, and in a conversation with the author asked him why he did not write a history of the more recent massacres by the red men. The reply was that the authentic material could not be had. Mr. Dunn turned the subject over in his mind for some time and corresponded with a publisher on the subject, but received little encouragement. He began investigating the matter, and was soon surprised at the wealth of material to be found, and that of the most authentic kind. By this time he had become thoroughly in love with the subject, and pursued it with avidity.

When his manuscript was completed he submitted it to the Harpers, of New York, and it was promptly accepted and published under the title "Massacres of the Mountains, a History of the Indian Wars of the Far West." The book at once attracted attention and was most favorably received by the critics and the general public, and received the endorsement even of the Government. This work placed him

at once on the roll of authors and gave him a well deserved place among historical writers. At that time he had not thought of ever writing a history of Indiana, but while pursuing his studies of Indian warfare he came across some allusions to the petitions sent to Congress from Indiana, in the early days of its territorial existence, on the subject of slavery. This opened up to him a new field, and as he had opportunity he gathered all he could on that subject. At that time Houghton, Mifflin & Co. were engaged in publishing their Commonwealth series. Mr. Dunn, in a letter to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., mentioned the fact that the effort to establish slavery in Indiana and its failure, was a central link around which the future history of the State hinged. It was suggested that he should prepare a History of Indiana, making that the principal feature. He began his preparations in a most thorough and systematic manner, giving himself up to the study of all the official records which could be obtained, and of all other matter bearing on the subject. The result was a work that added to his fame as a writer of history. The manuscript, when prepared, was submitted to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and was published in their series, and won more favorable comments than any of the other volumes of the series.

Since completing this last volume Mr. Dunn has applied himself to newspaper work, and is ranked as one of the ablest political writers of the State. He has also devoted much time to writing on economic subjects, and has contributed several pamphlets on various topics connected with the science of government, which have attracted wide attention. "The New Tax Law of Indiana, and the Science of Taxation," issued in 1892, and "The World's Silver Question," issued in 1894, have been largely circulated and

quoted. In 1889 he prepared a "Manual of the Ballot Law of Indiana," which was published by authority of the Legislature. In 1893 the World's Fair Commissioners requested him to prepare a Monograph on the Libraries of Indiana, which he did, and it has been considered a valuable addition to Indiana literature.

Indiana is still further indebted to him. It was largely through his efforts that the Indiana Historical Society has been revived, and the work of annually publishing a volume of valuable historical papers begun. For the second volume Mr. Dunn prepared two of the papers, one containing documents relating to the French settlements on the Wabash, and the other containing the petitions and other papers on the slavery question in Indiana. Most of the documents presented in this second paper had never previously been published. Mr. Dunn has done much to develop and encourage a study of Indiana history, and has fairly won the place he holds among Indiana writers.

JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.

Few names are better known to-day, to the reading public of America, than that of John Clark Ridpath. He has devoted a life to historical and scientific research. He was born in 1841, in Putnam County, Indiana. He was born in a log cabin, on a little farm cultivated by his father. At the time of his birth there was not a wagon road within three miles of his father's cabin. As soon as he was old enough to help in the work of the farm his labors began. Opportunities for acquiring an education were very limited. The only school house in the neighborhood was a log building in the forest, far off from any road, and was only reached by paths through the forest. It had no glass in the windows,

and the seats and desks were of the rudest pattern. In such a school building John Clark Ridpath began his search after knowledge. He absorbed knowledge almost by intuition, and by the time he was eleven years old had outgrown the school house. For the next four or five years he read what books he could obtain. At the age of nineteen he entered Asbury (now DePauw) University, and crowded a six years' course into four years. As soon as he graduated he entered upon a course of teaching, first finding a place in the Academy at Thorntown, where he served two years. He was then elected principal of the institution. In 1866 he became superintendent of the schools at Lawrenceburg. His reputation as an educator grew continually, and in 1869 Asbury University called him to the chair of English Literature. He remained with the University as one of the faculty until 1885.

In his childhood's days his reading had turned his mind to historical subjects, and as he grew in years this bent of his mind increased. In 1874-5 he published his first book, it being an "Academic History of the United States," intended as a text book for colleges and high schools. It met with remarkable success. It was afterwards abridged into a "Grammar School History," which is yet the text book in many parts of the country. His next work was an "Inductive Grammar of the English Language." In 1876 he gave to the public his "Popular History of the United States." In 1885 he published his "Cyclopaedia of Universal History," in four large volumes. This was followed by the "Great Races of Mankind." These are not the only works from his hand, for he has written a life of James G. Blaine, of James A. Garfield, and William E. Gladstone. He has also been one of the editors of the "People's Cyclopaedia." He has also been

an industrious contributor to the press of the country, and has covered in his contributions a great range of subjects.

BENJAMIN S. PARKER.

Benjamin S. Parker is a native of Indiana. He was born in a "cabin in the clearing," in Henry County, February 10, 1833. His parents were people of much intelligence and great lovers of books, so that his education began in the cabin home with his earliest recollection. His school opportunities were limited to such as were offered by the Friends' School, known as "Rich Square School," which were, however, remarkably good for those days. In early manhood he became a teacher, and succeeded well. Afterwards he engaged in newspaper work, and became one of the best known newspaper men in the State. In 1882 he was appointed, by President Arthur, United States Consul at Sherbrooke, Canada, and served until Mr. Cleveland became President. So favorably had he impressed himself upon the business men of that section of Canada, who had business with his office, that they appealed to President Cleveland to retain him. In 1886 he was elected Clerk of the Circuit Court of Henry County, and served four years.

He began writing when quite young, and like all young writers published much in the local papers, that scarcely gave promise of the better work he did in his mature years. Aside from a small volume which was printed for home circulation, in 1871, his published books have been "The Cabin in the Clearing, and Other Poems," in 1887, "Hoosier Bards," in 1891, and "The Rhymes of Our Neighborhood," in 1895. All these volumes have been uniformly well received by the critics and the public. He has also been an occasional contributor to the Century and other magazines.

His most popular poem, but by no means his best, is "The Cabin in the Clearing," from which one of his volumes takes its name. His best work is to be found in such poems as "The Hoosier Bards," "Tis Morning and the Days are Long," "The Damascus Road," "Carco Bay," and "Endymion." In dialect he has written but little, and his greatest success in that line is "The Old Camp Meeting," in African patois. "Tis Morning and the Days are Long," and "The Little Tunker Bonnet," are given as fairly representative of his poetry, in the serious and lighter veins. His prose work is equal to his poetry, but has not attracted so much attention, as no collection of it has been made, and he has published no prose volume.

"TIS MORNING AND THE DAYS ARE LONG."

I had a dream of other days ;
In golden luxury waved the wheat ;
In tangled greenness shook the maize ;
The squirrels ran with nimble feet,
And in and out among the trees
The hang bird darted like a flame ;
The cat bird piped his melodies,
Purloining every warbler's fame :
And then I heard triumphal song,
" 'Tis morning and the days are long."

They scattered roses, strewed the palms
And shouted down the pleasant vales ;
I heard a thousand happy psalms,
And, laughing, wove a thousand tales
Of mimic revelry and joy ;
They mocking well the worldly great—
Each tan-faced girl and barefoot boy,
Dear shapers of my early fate—
And then again the Æolian song,
" 'Tis morning and the days are long."

Far winding past the storied town,
The river ran through bosky groves,
Its flood we sailed our vessels down
Full freighted with a myriad loves ;
Our souls went floating to the gales
With scarlet leaves and shreds of bark ;
We named them cutters, schooners, sails,
And watched them fade in shadowy dark,
Then down the waters flowed the song,
“ ’Tis morning and the days are long.”

O, morning ! when the days are long,
And youth and innocence are wed,
And every grove is full of song,
And every pathway void of dread,
Who rightly sings its rightful praise,
Or rightly dreams it o’er again,
When cold and narrow are the days,
And shrunken all the hopes of men ;
He shall re-awaken with his song
“ The morning when the days were long.”

There palpitations wild and sweet,
The thrills of many an old delight,
And dimpled hands that lightly meet,
And hearts that tremble to unite,
Arise upon the rosy morn,
Pass down the lovely vales and stand
The picture of a memory born,
The mirage of a lotus land—
A land where once we trolled the song,
“ ’Tis morning and the days are long.”

THE LITTLE TUNKER BONNET.

A maiden came driving a sleek black mare
Into the town, into the town ;
And the light wind lifted her raven hair
In innocent ringlets falling down,

Like the cadence of a sonnet,
To the neck of her fleecy lead-colored gown,
From under the puckered, silken crown
Of her little Tunker bonnet

She'd a red-rose lip and an eye of brown,
And dimples rare, and dimples rare ;
But the lassies laughed as she rode in town,
For the graceful gown that she wore with care
Had never a flounce upon it ;
And they made remarks on her rustic air,
And wondered what country hulk would dare
Make love to that " queer old bonnet."

O, merry town girls, you do not know
Acres are wide, acres are wide ;
And wheat and corn-fields lying a-row
Are the Tunker's wealth and the Tunker's pride ;
And the farm and the houses on it ;
The cow for milk, and the horse to ride,
Are gift and dower for the bonny bride
That weareth the Tunker bonnet.

But the merchant beau at the dry-goods store
Welcomed her in, welcomed her in ;
And the sweet little face with smiles ran o'er
As the cunning purse of crocodile skin,
With the clinking clasp upon it,
She drew at each purchase, and from within
Coaxed arguments that were there to win
Sure grace for the Tunker bonnet.

Then she mounted her buggy and drove away
Through meadows sweet, through meadows sweet,
Where her graybeard father raked the hay
By the Tunker church where the turnpikes meet,
The church with no steeple on it.
Said the merchant, musing, " Her style is neat :
I'll join the Tunkers, raise beard and wheat,
And win that little bonnet."

MRS. SARAH T. BOLTON.

Long among the most honored women of Indiana stood Sarah T. Bolton, and to this day her name is a household word. She was not only honored in Indiana, but in other States and other lands. She was born at Newport, Kentucky, December 18, 1807. When she was still a child her parents concluded to move to the wilds of Indiana. There were then no roads into the wilderness where they were going, and all their earthly possessions were carried on pack horses. Their new home was a little cabin standing in a dense forest full of Indians and wild beasts. It was under the shade of those giant trees that she learned to weave her poetic strains. The family of the new settler was growing up around him, and he began to long for the means of giving them an education. This could not be obtained in the wilderness where they lived, and he at last determined to sell the farm he had just carved out of the forest and move to Madison, then the most thriving town in the new State. Sarah was very quick to learn, and although when she began her school days was very far behind those of her age, it was not long until she had passed them in the acquisition of knowledge. There she began to write verses for the county paper, and finally some for the papers in Cincinnati. Her writings attracted the attention of Nathaniel Bolton, who was the first editor in Indianapolis. He courted the young poet and they were married, taking their bridal journey to Indianapolis on horseback. Her husband purchased the farm on which the Central Hospital for the Insane now stands, and they began the life of a farmer. Mrs. Bolton continued to write for the papers, and her husband went

back to the work of an editor in after years. From various causes their farming was not successful, but while on the farm their home was an ideal one, and within its walls were often gathered the men who made Indiana famous in its earlier years.

In 1851 Mr. Bolton was appointed United States Consul at Geneva, Switzerland. His wife accompanied him abroad and remained with him while his official life lasted. They traveled extensively in Europe, and many of her finest poems were written there. The best known poem of Mrs. Bolton is "Paddle Your Own Canoe." That and "Away to the Battle of Life," are given as examples of her style.

PADDLE YOUR OWN CANOE.

Voyager upon life's sea,
To yourself be true,
And where'er your lot may be,
Paddle your own canoe.
Never though the winds may rave,
Falter nor look back ;
But upon the darkest wave
Leave a shining track.

Nobly dare the wildest storm,
Stem the hardest gale ;
Brave of heart and strong of arm,
You will never fail.
When the world is cold and dark,
Keep an aim in view,
And toward the beacon-mark
Paddle your own canoe.

Every wave that bears you on
To the silent shore,
From its sunny source has gone
To return no more.

Then let not an hour's delay
Cheat you of your due ;
But, while it is called to-day,
Paddle your own canoe.

If your birth denied you wealth,
Lofty state and power ;
Honest fame and hardy health
Are a better dower.
But if these will not suffice,
Golden gain pursue ;
And, to win the glittering prize,
Paddle your own canoe.

Would you wrest the wreath of fame
From the hand of fate ?
Would you write a deathless name
With the good and great ?
Would you bless your fellow-men ?
Heart and soul imbue
With the holy task, and then
Paddle your own canoe.

Would you crush the tyrant wrong,
In the world's free fight ?
With a spirit brave and strong,
Battle for the right ;
And to break the chains that bind
The many to the few,
To enfranchise slavish mind—
Paddle your own canoe.

Nothing great is lightly won ;
Nothing won is lost ;
Every good deed, nobly done,
Will repay the cost.
Leave to heaven, in humble trust,
All you will to do ;
But if you succeed, you must
Paddle your own canoe.

AWAY TO THE BATTLE OF LIFE.

Away to the battle of life, my boy,
While yet it is called to-day,
For the years go out and the years come in,
Regardless of all who may lose or win,
Of all who may work or play.

And the troops march steadily on, my boy,
To the myriads gone before ;
You can hear the sound of their falling feet,
Going down to the river where two worlds meet—
They go to return no more.

There is room for you in the ranks, my boy,
And duty to you assigned ;
Step into the front with a cheerful grace—
Be quick, or another may take your place,
And you shall be left behind.

There is work for you by the way, my boy,
That you never can do again ;
Work for the lowliest, loftiest men,
With shuttle and spindle, ploughshare and pen ;
Work for the hand and brain.

The serpent will follow you close, my boy,
To lay for your feet a snare,
And Pleasure will sit in her fairy bowers,
With crimson poppies and lotus flowers
Enwreathing her golden hair.

But, oh ! beware of her wiles, my boy,
Beware of her Upas breath ;
She has learned the lore of deception well ;
But her steps take hold on the gates of hell—
The kiss of her lips is death.

Then put on the armor of God, my boy,
In the beautiful days of youth ;
Put on the helmet, the breastplate and shield,
And the sword that the feeblest arm may wield,
In the cause of right and truth.

•

And go to the battle of Life, my boy,
With the peace of the Gospel shod,
And before high Heaven do the best you can
For the great reward, for the good of man,
For the crown and kingdom of God.

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY.

Greenfield, in Hancock County, was a small village in 1854, yet in that year was born in the village one who has since filled the United States with his fame, and has become almost as well known and well loved across the ocean as in his own State. What education James Whitcomb Riley obtained was in the schools of his native village, and that was not a great deal; not that the schools were not good, but because he was of that bent of mind and disposition that did not like the school house. It is an old saying that "Poets are born, not made." This is pre-eminently the case with Mr. Riley. His writings come from the genius born in him, and not from any inspiration or help derived from the school house. He was not a "bad boy," in the acceptance of that term, but was a restless one. As soon as he was old enough to begin fairly to think for himself, he began to desire to see more of the world than was found in his native village. He had given no evidence of the genius of his later years. but if his mind had shown any bent at all it was toward music, for he did love the violin. He drifted here, and drifted there, trying many things to earn a living, and finally drifted into a printing office.

It was while roaming over the country, playing the violin for a show, writing signs for village storekeepers, and doing other things to earn a living, he got the education which enabled him to write his wonderful stories in prose and

poem. Standing on the street corners of the cities, all silent himself, he listened to the talk of the newsboys and boot-blacks; heard their dialect, caught the quaint humor, the deep pathos, the strange logic, coming from such infantile lips, and while listening he studied their character, and was soon filled with the motives which animated them; he talked with the farmer lads, as he wended his way along the highways; he studied the trees, the flowers, the weeds, the old homes, even the cattle and the lumbering old wagons. He knew not then, nor even dreamed what all this would eventually bring forth, but in those days of wandering he was filling a store house, from which in his manhood days he was to bring forth inexhaustible streams to charm, fascinate and please the world. His first writings were hidden away in the "Poets Corner," of the village paper, and attracted only a local attention, but after awhile they began to appear in papers of more pretensions, and it slowly dawned upon the public that a new poet had arisen. Then he almost jumped into fame at one bound. His first volume was published in 1883, and since then they have followed yearly, and now the poems of Riley are found in almost every home, and those who read them laugh and cry in turn.

What is there in his writings which charms all who read? Who can explain it? It is not the dialect, for of that one would tire after awhile. Dialect soon palls on the taste. Such a stream of it as he has given the world, quaint as it is, would have nauseated the public long before this. There is but one way of explaining his popularity. There is a human heart, in his writings, a nature, found only in Burns, beside. When he writes of the trees, one sees the tree; when he talks of the old home, one sees the home, with its gable, its rambling attic, its roomy kitchen. It is not writing alone,

but a painting. And in it all there is a warm, beating heart. His humor is so rich and so tender that it is of itself almost pathos, while his pathos is so deep, so naturally from the heart, that it touches all other hearts.

He is of the common people; he writes about the common people; he enters into their feelings; sympathizes with them, sorrows with them; rejoices with them, in their own way. No writer of verse, produced by America, has reached his popularity, and it is not confined to the "common people" by any means, but he has touched the heart and fascinated the man of letters in his library, the banker in his office; the millionaire in his palace. He has not written as much prose as poetry, but his prose is fully equal to his verse, in every element, and in pathos and humor even surpasses his verse writing. Magazines, newspapers, and many readers make a great mistake in commenting on his writings; they constantly speak of them as being in "Hoosier dialect." They are no more in Hoosier dialect than in Boston dialect. Go into the streets of Boston, and listen to the boot blacks, the newsboys, or go into the country regions in any State in the Union, and talk with the uneducated among the people, and you will hear the same dialect. The dialect he uses is something broader than the boundary line of one State. It is hard to tell which one of his poems is the most popular, but the one oftenest quoted is "When the Frost is on the Punkin." For that reason we give it a place among the two or three selections from his works.

WHEN THE FROST IS ON THE PUNKIN.

When the frost in on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock,
And you hear the kyouck and gobble of the struttin' turkey-cock,
And the clackin' of the guineys, and cluckin' of the hens,
And the rooster's hallylooyer as he tiptoes on the fence ;

O, it's then's the times a feller is a-feelin' at his best,
 With the risin' sun to greet him from a night of peaceful rest,
 As he leaves the house, bareheaded, and goes out to feed the stock,
 When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock.

They's something kindo' harty-like about the atmosfere
 When the heat of summer's over and the coolin' fall is here—
 Of course we miss the flowers, and the blossoms on the trees,
 And the mumble of the hummin'-birds and buzzin' of the bees;
 But the air's so appetizin'; and the landscape through the haze
 Of a crisp and sunny morning of the airy autumn days
 Is a pictur' that no painter has the colorin' to mock—
 When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock.

The husky, rusty russel of the tassels of the corn,
 And the raspin' of the tangled leaves, as golden as the morn;
 The stubble in the furries—kindo' lonesome-like, but still
 A-preachin' sermons to us of the barns they growed to fill;
 The strawstack in the medder, and the reaper in the shed;
 The hosses in theyr stalls below—the clover overhead!—
 O, it sets my hart a-clickin' like the tickin' of a clock,
 When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock!

Then your apples all is getherd, and the ones a feller keeps
 Is poured around the celler-floor in red and yellor heaps;
 And your cider-makin's over, and your wimmern-folk is through
 With their mince and apple-butter, and theyr souse and sausage,
 too;—

I don't know how to tell it—but if sich a thing could be
 As the Angels wantin' boardin', and they'd call around on *me*—
 I'd want to 'commodate 'em—all the whole indurin' flock,
 When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock!

DECORATION DAY ON THE PLACE.

It's lonesome—sorto' lonesome,—it's a *Sund'y-day*, to me,
 It 'pears-like—more'n any day I nearly ever see!
 Yit, with the Stars and Stripes above, a-flutterin' in the air,
 On ev'ry Soldier's grave I'd love to lay a lilly thare.

They say, though, Decoration Days is ginerly observed
 'Most *ev'rywhares*—espeshally by soldier-boys that's served.—
 But me and Mother's never went—we seldom git away,—
 In pint o' fact, we're *allus* home on *Decoration Day*.

They say the old boys marches through the streets in colum's grand,
 A-follerin' the old war-tunes theyr playin' on the band—
 And citizuns all jinin' in—and little childern, too—
 All marchin', under shelter of the old Red, White and Blue.—

With roses ! roses ! roses !—ev'rybody in the town !—
 And crowds of little girls in white, jest fairly loaded down !—
 Oh ! don't THE BOYS know it, from theyr camp acrost the hill ?—
 Don't they see their com'ards comin' and the old flag wavin' still ?

Oh ! can't they hear the bugul and the rattle of the drum ?—
 Ain't they no way under heavens they can rickollect us some ?
 Ain't they no way we can coax 'em, through the roses, jest to say
 They know that ev'ry day on earth's theyr Decoration Day ?

We've tried that—me and Mother,—whare Elias takes his rest,
 In the orchurd—in his uniform, and hands acrost his brest,
 And the flag he died fer, smilin' a-ripplin' in the breeze,
 Above his grave—and over that,—*the robin in the trees !*

And *yit* it's lonesome—lonesome !—It's a *Sund'y-day*, to *me*,
 It 'pears-like—more'n any day I nearly ever see !—
 Still, with the Stars and Stripes above, a-flutterin' in the air,
 On ev'ry Soldier's grave I'd love to lay a lilly thare.

LEWIS WALLACE.

At the head of fiction writers of this century stands Lewis Wallace, of Indiana. He is not only distinguished as a writer of fiction, but he is a poet of note, an artist, has won honors on the battle field and in the ranks of diplomacy. He was born at Brookville, Franklin County, April 10, 1827. He received his education in the common schools of that

County, and of Indianapolis, where he came with his father, who served as Governor of the State. When war was declared with Mexico he was a law student, but he left his books for a sword and became First Lieutenant of Company H., First Indiana Regiment. He served with gallantry during the war, and was with General Taylor at the battle of Buena Vista. On his return home he located at Crawfordsville, in the practice of his profession. He served four years as a member of the State Senate. When Governor Morton saw the war cloud gathering in 1861, he appointed Mr. Wallace Adjutant General of the State, and when the first regiments were organized, commissioned him as Colonel of the Eleventh Indiana Regiment. With his regiment he went to Maryland. At the close of their term of enlistment, three months, the regiment returned to Indianapolis, and was recruited for three years. September 3, 1861, he was made Brigadier General, and commanded a division at the capture of Fort Donelson. There, it was the steady fighting of his division which saved the army from disaster, on the day the Confederates tried to break through Grant's lines. For his gallantry on that occasion he was made a Major General of Volunteers. He led his division during the second day's battle at Shiloh. When a Court of Inquiry was ordered on the campaign of General Buell, in Kentucky, he was made President of the Court. In 1863, when Bragg and Kirby Smith invaded Kentucky and threatened Cincinnati, he was placed in command at that place, and so strongly fortified the country on the Kentucky side of the river, that the Confederates retired without making an attack. He was afterwards put in command of the Middle Department, with headquarters at Baltimore. He was also made commander of the Eighth Corps.

He was in command at Baltimore when Early invaded Maryland, in his attempt on Washington. Wallace only had a few thousand troops at his command, but with them he advanced and met the Confederates at Monocacy, and there held the enemy at bay for several hours. In fact, the resistance of the Union troops was so strong that the Confederates were delayed thirty hours on the march. This delay gave General Grant time to reinforce Washington, the advance of the reinforcements debarking from the steamers, as that of Early was attacking one of the outlying forts. This action of General Wallace won the warmest commendation from General Grant, but for it he was removed by Halleck. When General Grant heard of the removal, he promptly reinstated Wallace. Not long after this General Wallace was sent on a secret diplomatic mission to the Liberals of Mexico. Maximillian was then in power in that country, but the Mexican Republicans were maintaining a warfare against him. Wallace was instructed to place himself in communication with the leaders of the insurgents and promise them aid. This mission was known to but three persons—Grant, Wallace and President Lincoln. General Wallace acquitted himself on this mission with such skill as to again win commendation from General Grant. On his return from Mexico he was again put in command at Baltimore. When the assassins of President Lincoln were placed on trial before a military tribunal, General Wallace was made the second member of the court. He afterwards painted a large picture of one of the scenes of the conspiracy, depicted by the witnesses. He was President of the Court which tried Wirz, who had commanded Andersonville prison during the horrors of that place.

He was mustered out of the service in 1865, and returned

to Crawfordsville. From 1878 to 1881 he was Governor of New Mexico, and in 1881 was appointed Minister to Turkey. His first literary work was the Fair God, published in 1873. It is a story of Mexico at the time of its conquest by Cortez. His most famous work is Ben Hur, or a Story of The Christ, published in 1880. In 1888 was published The Boyhood of Christ, and in 1893, the Prince of India.

CHAPTER XXXII.

MEN OF SCIENCE.

It could hardly be expected that a State carved from the wilderness in less than three-quarters of a century could produce many men of great learning or scientific attainments. We naturally turn to the older States of the East when looking for such products. Massachusetts and Virginia, with their seats of learning dating back for more than two centuries, might be expected to have a long roll of those who have distinguished themselves in the world of learning and science. Around these old centers such men are wont to gather. In the wilderness of Indiana there was nothing to attract them—they could find but little scope for their powers. Then, too, it was not until after the war of the rebellion and the honors won therein by Indiana soldiers that the State began its great upward march. Its progress has been of the last third of a century, yet notwithstanding all these drawbacks Indiana can lay claim to a proud place among those that can count their great names in science, literature and art.

The proud position of Indiana in science dates back to the New Harmony days; to the days, nearly a century gone, when thoughtful men believed a new social era was about to dawn; when the belief was rife that competition was past, that land in cities could no longer rise in value and that the



DAVID STARR JORDAN.



PROF. JOHN M. COULTER.



HARVEY W. WILEY.



PROF. STANLEY COULTER.



PROF. A. W. BUTLER.

community system must prevail; to the days when wise men believed that because of their superabundance, riches would soon cease to be the chief aim of man's endeavor, and that rational living would be the rule. It was in those days that William Maclure, of Philadelphia, founded the New Harmony settlement which soon became the Mecca of scientists; a settlement which indeed failed to realize the hopes of its founder, yet which served to awaken that scientific spirit which has never died out in Indiana. Because of the cruel stress and strain of the war period, and the wonderful material development of the subsequent years, the achievements, and even the names of the scientific workers of the State, have been lost sight of, and yet never in the history of the State has there been a time since the New Harmony days when she could not boast a scientist whose fame was as broad as the civilized world. William Maclure,* the founder of the colony, was a noted geologist, who, in addition to the general oversight of the settlement and the editing of "The Disseminator of Useful Knowledge," found time to make large collections in his chosen field. A part of these collections were in the famous Owen Museum, purchased by Indiana University, which was unfortunately destroyed by fire in 1883.

Concerning the shells of the Wabash, Thomas Say wrote voluminously and with authority. When he entered the New Harmony settlement he was already famous as a naturalist and traveler. He wrote of insects as well as of shells, and whatever he touched bore the imprint of a master workman. When he died it was said that "he had done more to make known the zoology of this country than any other man."

*The data for the scientists of the New Harmony settlement are from an article by Professor Jordan, in *Popular Science Monthly* for June, 1897.

Charles Alexander Le Sueur, a native of France, was one of the most noted of these pioneer scientists. Before he quit his native land his fame had become wide-spread. He had been around the world as a naturalist on a famous expedition, and was the friend of Cuvier. His special studies were of the turtles and fish. He was the first to study the fish fauna of the great lakes, and to investigate the great family of fishes known as buffaloes and suckers. He made immense collections of the animals of the Wabash valley, which he sent to Cuvier and which still remain in the museum in Paris.

Another geologist of note was Dr. Gerard Troost, whose splendid collection of minerals became the possession of a society in Louisville. Dr. Troost, after leaving the community, became the State Geologist of Tennessee.

Rafinesque, the eccentric, the "mad scientist," so called, yet one whose work in these later days has been proven to be of true worth, was for a time at the community. There was scarcely a department of science in which Rafinesque did not work, and while much of his work is undoubtedly bad, very much is of high order.

Then there were the two Owens, David Dale and Richard, of similar tastes and almost equal fame. David Dale Owen spent most of his life as a geologist in the public service. In 1837 he was State Geologist in Indiana. After this he was in charge of government work in Wisconsin and Iowa, then five years as United States Geologist in field work beyond the Mississippi. Then successively he had charge of the State surveys in Kentucky, Arkansas and Indiana. Because of the high standard of his work he has profoundly impressed the history of American geology, and has left a name of which Indiana may well be proud. Richard Owen

spent the greater part of his life as a teacher, being for many years professor of geology in Indiana University. He also did much field work as the assistant of his brother, and while professor at the university. His publications are extremely numerous, and have, of course, a variant value, but, through his contact with the young, it is doubtful if any one has done more to disseminate the love of true science in Indiana than Richard Owen.

To say aught of Professor Kirkwood is supererogation. Great as a man, as a teacher, as a mathematician, as an astronomer, his name is honored not merely by the hundreds who have come directly under his influence, but by the whole State, which he has honored by faithful service and loyal citizenship.

Of the men who deserve well of Indiana is E. T. Cox, for so long a time State Geologist. More, perhaps, than any other one man, Prof. Cox brought Indiana to commercial importance by his exploitation of her coals and other economic resources. His investigation of the values of the various coals of the State for different uses in manufactures was both scientific and complete. Working under great disadvantages, he produced results far greater than is generally realized, and set a standard for the work in geology in the State which is still followed. While paying special attention to the economic side of geology, Prof. Cox did not lose sight of the purely scientific aspects of the science as the numerous valuable monographs in the reports published under his direction indicate. Closely associated with him in this work and largely assisting in its organization and execution, was Dr. G. M. Levette, to whose hands were entrusted, for the most part, the chemical analysis of the coals. No one but a chemist can fully appreciate the vast amount

of work represented in the various tabulated reports of coal analysis as they appear in the successive volumes of the State Geological Report.

Then there was John Collett, who knew Indiana more intimately, from a geological standpoint, at least, than any one who has made that science a special study, who, by his investigations, and with the assistance of his collaborators, did much to impress the country at large with the varied character and high value of the natural resources of Indiana. In these later years our present State Geologist, W. S. Blatchley, with the new problems presented because of the discovery of gas and oil areas, is continuing the good work of exploiting the natural resources of Indiana. In addition to a careful study of the gas and oil fields, Mr. Blatchley has made such a complete and thorough study of the clays of Indiana that his name deserves to stand with those of Cox and Collett. The result of this work through all these years has been that Indiana, though relatively small in area, is ranked among the first in the value and variety of her natural resources. Because of this careful study, immigration has been attracted, manufactories have been established and the wealth of the State increased many fold beyond the expense attending these investigations.

No least among the great men of science was Dr. E. Ö. Hovey, the noted geologist of Wabash College, under whose hand grew the Hovey Museum. His work was chiefly from the side of pure science and among fossils, but by the development of the crinoid beds at Crawfordsville, by the discovery and description of new species, he made for himself a reputation which extends far beyond State bounds, and beyond the bounds of our country. Yet it was more as a man who influenced the young men of the State for good,

than as a mere scientist he is best remembered. He did much for the State through science, yet much more because of his personal influence upon his students.

There are others equally great, equally worthy of mention, but enough has been given to justify the claim that the place of Indiana in science is a proud one. It may be a question whether the promise for the future is as great as the past would lead us to expect. To us it seems that the future must be more brilliant than the past, because its virile strength and enthusiasm seems to have descended undiminished to the present generation of scientific workers. The following sketches of living scientists are meant to include those who have been born and educated in the State or whose reputation has been gained by work done within the State. Many of high rank who do not meet these conditions are omitted from the list of those who are taken to stand for Indiana in science.

Indiana's most distinguished botanist, and one whose reputation is international, is John M. Coulter, head professor of botany in Chicago University. Dr. Coulter was educated at Hanover College, from which he graduated in 1870 with the highest honors, since which time he has been a tireless worker in his chosen field, though finding time to study the great educational problems of the day in such a way as to rank among the foremost educators of the time. In 1872 and 1873 he was botanist of Hayden's Government Survey, the outcome of this work being "A Synopsis of the Flora of Colorado," published with the collaboration of Prof. T. C. Porter. From 1874 to 1879 he was professor of natural science at Hanover College, which position he resigned to accept a similar chair in Wabash College, where he remained until 1891. These twelve years at Crawfordsville were

among the most productive years of a busy career. In 1891 he was elected president of Indiana University to succeed President Jordan. In 1893 this position was resigned to accept the presidency of Lake Forest University, at Lake Forest, Ill. This position Dr. Coulter held for three years, resigning in 1896 to become head professor of botany in Chicago University. His success as teacher and as executive officer has brought him a reputation scarcely less than that as a botanist. He is a member of many scientific societies, having held the following offices: President Indiana Academy of Science, 1887; president section of biology, American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1891; president Botanical Society of America, 1897. His publications, considering other duties, have been voluminous, showing an unflagging industry and capacity for throwing off work. His principal writings are as follows: Editorial work on *Botanical Gazette*, from 1875 until the present; "Manual of Rocky Mountain Botany," in 1885; "Hand Book of Plant Dissection" (with Profs. Arthur and Barnes), 1886; "Botany of Western Texas," 1894; "Revised Edition (6th) Gray's Manual" (with Sereno Watson), 1890; "Revision of North American Umbelliferae" (with Dr. Rose), 1888; "Revision of North American Cactaceae," 1895; "Hypericaceae in Synoptical Flora," 1897, together with a series of minor articles numbering more than one hundred. In addition to these strictly scientific articles are the three presidential addresses before the societies named above, and various educational papers. Dr. Coulter has the art of making science interesting and is in much demand as a popular lecturer and in extension courses.

Another botanist of national reputation is Dr. Charles R. Barnes, of the University of Wisconsin, who has been

closely associated with Dr. Coulter in botanical work. He is one of the editors of the *Botanical Gazette* and a collaborator in the preparation of the "Hand Book of Plant Dissection." Dr. Barnes was born at Madison, receiving his education at Hanover College, from which institution he graduated in 1877. After teaching in the public schools for a few years he became professor of botany in Purdue University, which position he held until 1887, when he resigned to accept his present position. In addition to his work in the mosses, in which he is perhaps the highest authority in America, Dr. Barnes has found time to do much valuable work in physiological botany. In accuracy of knowledge, directness of statement and critical ability, he ranks among the first botanists of the country. His publications are numerous and of high value, his work upon mosses being the accepted authority. Dr. Barnes is a purely Indiana product and his success has brought credit to his native State.

Dr. Joseph N. Rose, Assistant United States Botanist, was born in Franklin County, and graduated from Wabash College, in which institution he received his botanical training at the hands of Dr. John M. Coulter. He has held his present position about ten years, devoting his time to systematic work among the flowering plants. His publications, which are very numerous, are all issued by the Agricultural Department at Washington.

Among the young scientists of the State Prof. Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University, is entitled to rank. He was educated at Hanover, graduating in 1873. He received from Hanover the degree of Ph. D. in 1888. After graduating he gave himself up to teaching, and for ten years taught in the public schools. Since then he has devoted his time to college work. He has been at Purdue since 1887, and now is pro-

fessor of biology, and has direction of the biological laboratory of that institution. He took a special course of studies in botany at Harvard, and has taught in the summer school of the university of Wisconsin. He is a Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and a Fellow of the Indiana Academy of Science. Of this latter he was vice president in 1895, and president in 1896.

His published papers number more than fifty. Those of especial interest locally are: "Forest Trees of Indiana," and "Contributions to the Flora of Indiana," 1, 2, 3, and 4. His other published articles chiefly pertain to work in anatomical botany. He is devoted to science and to its teaching, and perhaps his greatest reputation is as a teacher.

While Dr. Jordan is not a native of Indiana, still the State can lay claim to him, for it was here he practically began his life work, and started on that road to fame he has since traveled. He was born at Gainesville, New York, January 10, 1851. In 1868 he entered Cornell University, graduating in 1872. The following sketch of him was written by Dr. Joseph Swain, President of Indiana University, for the *Inland Educator*:

"In 1872-73 Dr. Jordan was professor in Lombard University, Galesburg, Ill. In 1873-74 he was lecturer in botany in the Anderson School at Penikese, and in 1875 in the Harvard Summer School at Cumberland Gap. He was teacher in the Indianapolis High School, 1874-75; professor of biology at Butler University, 1875-79; professor of zoology in Indiana University, 1879-85; when he became president of the University. He has been president of Leland Stanford, Jr., University since 1891.

"Dr. Jordan began the study of fishes under Agassiz in

1873, and has given much time to this science every year since. He has made extensive explorations of the United States, Mexico and Europe in the collection and study of fishes. In 1876 he worked in Georgia; in 1873 in the vicinity of Beaufort, N. C.; in 1879, '81 and '83 he made collections in Europe. In 1880 he collected along the Pacific coast from Puget Sound to Panama. In 1882 he worked in Florida and Texas; in 1884 in Florida Keys, Island of Cuba, Iowa, Missouri and Texas; in 1886 in Florida; in 1888 in Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Indiana and South Carolina; in 1889, in Colorado, Utah and Yellowstone Park. In 1895 he made a collection of fishes in Mexico. He has studied fishes in the museums of Paris, London and Berlin.

"Dr. Jordan has probably written more on fishes than any other living naturalist. His short articles and monographs are numbered by the hundreds. He is the author of a Manual of Vertebrates, which has had several revisions and is used by many colleges for a systematic study of animals. His Science Sketches is a collection of magazine articles and public addresses on scientific subjects. Fishes of North America is a bulletin of about 1,200 pages written by Dr. Jordan with the assistance of Dr. Charles H. Gilbert. This work has recently been revised and enlarged by Jordan and Evermann.

"The Culture and Care of Men is the title of a collection of addresses which he has recently published. The Innumerable Company and Other Addresses is also a recent publication.

"Some years ago Dr. Jordan said in a public address: 'A great man never fails to make a great mark on every youth with whom he comes in contact.' This declaration is applicable to him. He has made a great mark on the young

men and women whose lives he has touched. He has trained more students of ichthyology than any other naturalist in the United States. He has not only trained them, but in many instances he has induced them to begin the subject and to pursue the study of science as a life work.

"It was said by Dr. Bryan that the period of the presidency of Dr. Jordan in Indiana University was epoch-making. This is true not only in respect to the institution itself, but also because of the influence exerted on other institutions. The modernizing of the curriculum, the extension of the elective system, the granting of greater freedom to teacher and student, all have exerted an immense influence both within and without Indiana University. He placed much greater stress on the importance of teachers being investigators and contributors to the advancement of knowledge than had previously been done. He, therefore, brought to Indiana numerous young men fresh from Eastern and European centers of learning. As professors' salaries were low, he had to depend, in the main, on young men. One of Dr. Jordan's strongest points as an administrator consisted in his ability to see the possibility of growth in young men. He recognized the worth of many a young man before the student knew himself that he had any special gift.

"Dr. Jordan's scientific achievements are due chiefly to three things: He has a remarkably retentive memory; a wonderful pair of eyes, and the ability to stick to anything he undertakes.

"His memory was a constant source of surprise to his students and friends. Anything that he has seen, heard or read seems to be imprinted on his mind. He does not appear to remember, he apparently sees the things that have in any way come to his notice. His eyes seem like a sensitive

photographic plate. An object has only to come within his range of vision to fix itself on his mind. I have repeatedly heard him describe in detail things to which he had given but a passing glance. His retentive memory and exactness of vision combined with great vigor and activity of mind enable him to accomplish several times as much work in a given time as the average worker.

"He never permitted anything to interfere with the final accomplishment of anything he undertook to do. He has said, 'The world stands aside to let a man pass who knows where he is going.' The resolution to accomplish a certain object once having a firm hold on him he rarely lets it go. He usually knows where he is going and the world stands aside to let him pass."

Of the younger scientists of Indiana, no one perhaps deserves more praise than Amos W. Butler, of Brookville. Certainly no one has given more liberally of time and effort to setting a high standard for Indiana in lines scientific. It was through the energy of Mr. Butler that the Indiana Academy of Science, recognized as one of the most thoroughly organized and efficient in the country, was established. By his persistent efforts during its earlier years it was brought into greater and greater prominence, until now it stands as an institution of which any State might be proud. Mr. Butler stands as undisputed authority on birds, his knowledge of those of the State being based upon years of patient observation, supplemented by voluminous notes and large collections of specimens. Because of his love of birds, he was naturally the prime mover in securing the passage of the excellent laws protecting birds, their nests and eggs. Mr. Butler is perhaps more thoroughly posted upon the antiquities of the State than any other per-

son, and has contributed many valuable notes in this department of science.

Mr. Butler was born in Brookville, where he still resides, in 1860. He was educated in the public schools, in Hanover College and Indiana University, graduating from the latter institution. His special work was in zoology and anthropology. Mr. Butler has traveled extensively in his scientific work, having made extensive collections in Mexico, Canada and over the greater part of the United States. He is a contributor to many papers and magazines, including *Science*, *American Meteorological Journal*, *American Antiquarian*, *American Naturalist*, *The Auk*. Also to the *Journal of Cincinnati Society of Natural History*, *Proceedings of American Association for the Advancement of Science*, and publications of United States Department of Agriculture. He has issued "*Birds of Franklin County, Indiana*," "*Birds of Indiana*," and numerous minor works, his published papers numbering over fifty. His worth is shown by the recognition accorded him by the associations of which he is a member. In the American Association for the Advancement of Science he is a Fellow, was secretary of section of anthropology in 1886, of section of biology in 1889, of council in 1891, and general secretary of the association in 1892.

He is a Fellow of the Indiana Academy of Science, being its secretary until 1893, becoming vice president in 1894 and president in 1895. He was one of the founders of the Brookville Society of Natural History, and was its secretary for years. He is also a member of several American and foreign societies.

In all of his work Mr. Butler has been more zealous for the honor of the State than his own advancement, and has the confidence and respect of his fellow workers in science.

Among others who are maintaining the record of the State for scientific work it is difficult to select, so numerous are they and so worthy. Among the most prominent who are to the "manor born" are Drs. O. P. Jenkins, of Leland Stanford University, and B. W. Evermann, expert to the United States Fish Commission. Both of these gentlemen received their education in the State, and both, through their work while in the State, achieved the reputation which served to bring them advancement. Both, also, were largely influenced in their scientific career by President Jordan, whose work as an educator will be felt for many years in Indiana. Dr. Jenkins, while having made many contributions to our knowledge of fishes, is by taste and training a physiologist, the two texts upon this subject in the Indiana series of texts, being the product of his pen. He is a tireless worker and a born teacher. The work of Dr. Evermann has been largely among fish, and his numerous reports published by the Government are sufficient evidence of the high character of his work.

While not a native of Indiana, no man in later years has done more or better work in line zoological than Dr. Carl Eigenmann, of Indiana University. While a specialist in fishes, Dr. Eigenmann's studies are not confined to the classification of forms, but extend to the broader and more profound problems concerning variation, heredity and environment. For several years at Turkey Lake he has gathered about him a large number of enthusiastic students, who, under his guidance, have been accumulating large series of data along definitely planned lines of investigation. The results already reached are sufficient evidence of the great scientific value of the work. Dr. Eigenmann has pub-

lished largely and is one of the recognized authorities on the subjects which he treats.

This resume of the work of the scientists of to-day might be extended almost indefinitely, for at no time in the history of the State has there been a better trained, more enthusiastic or better organized body of scientific workers than to-day. It would be impossible to close this sketch, however, without reference to that Nestor among the men of science of Indiana, Prof. Joseph Moore, of Earlham College. With all the enthusiasm of youth his work is continued along his chosen lines of geology and anthropology, and the amount of work which he does puts to shame many of the younger workers of to-day. His knowledge of the fossils of the State is perhaps superior to that of any other person now living. His work has brought to him reputation, while his character has brought the personal love and reverence of every scientist in the State.

Harvey W. Wiley, chief of the Division of Chemistry of the United States Department of Agriculture at Washington, D. C., was born at Kent, Ind. He graduated from Hanover College in 1867, receiving the degree of A. B. Subsequently the degrees of A. M. and Ph. D. and LL. D. were conferred upon him by the same institution. He commenced his public career as professor of Latin and Greek in Butler University, where he remained three years. In 1871 he took the degree of M. D. at the Indiana Medical College, and the same year was a teacher of science in the Indianapolis High School. In 1873 he graduated from Harvard University with the degree of S. B., and in 1874 accepted the chair of chemistry in Butler University, which he occupied for only a short time, being called to a similar position in Purdue University, the agricultural college of Indiana, where he

remained until 1883, with the exception of one year spent at the University of Berlin. From 1881 to 1883 he served as State Chemist of Indiana, and for three years (1874-7) was professor of chemistry in the Indiana Medical College.

When State Chemist of Indiana, Professor Wiley directed much of his attention to the study of glucose and sugars, and his reputation as an expert on these subjects resulted in a call to his present position as Chemist of the Department of Agriculture. Under his capable supervision the chemical laboratory of that department has rapidly improved, the scope of the work enlarged and methods systematized, until at present it ranks as one of the foremost laboratories of the country.

Professor Wiley is connected with various scientific societies. He has served as the president of the Washington Chemical Society, president of the Chemical Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, president of the Association of Official Agricultural Chemists, and is, and has been for eight years, its permanent secretary and executive officer. He was for two years president of the American Chemical Society, a rapidly growing national organization numbering over a thousand members and embracing most of the prominent American chemists. He has published a large number of scientific papers, together with numerous addresses and government reports, both of a technical and popular character, and is the author of a text book on "Agricultural Chemical Analysis," one of the most elaborate works of the kind ever issued from the press.

One of the greatest civil engineers of the world was James B. Eads, born in Indiana, May, 23, 1820. From his earliest infancy he displayed a love for machinery, and a wonderful ingenuity in constructing model saw mills, fire

engines, steamboats and other objects. It was a passion with him nothing could overcome. In 1833 he removed to St. Louis, and that city was thereafter his home. He devoted himself to the study of civil engineering, and constructed a diving bell, after a design of his own, and in 1842 engaged in the work of raising the cargoes of sunken steamboats. From that he applied himself to the work of raising the boats themselves, and many of the finest and most valuable vessels that had been sunk in the Mississippi River, or its tributaries, were thus saved by him.

He established the first works for the manufacture of glass ever constructed west of the Ohio River. In 1856 he made a proposition to the Government to keep the Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio and Arkansas Rivers free from snags, wrecks and other obstructions, for a term of years. The Government did not accept the proposition, but, doubtless, if it had done so fewer steamers would have been wrecked on those rivers and thus a vast amount of property would have been saved. In 1861, shortly after the breaking out of the civil war, he was called to Washington by President Lincoln, who desired to consult with him as to the feasibility of constructing light draft iron-clad gunboats for use on the western rivers. He was authorized by the Government to construct a number of such boats, and such was his energy that within one hundred days he had designed, built, equipped and sent to the front eight iron-clad gunboats. These boats were used to attack and capture Fort Henry, one month before the Monitor had its fight with the Merrimac.

He constructed a number of other boats for the Government, and they were used by Grant in his attempts on Vicksburg, and afterward at the siege and capture of Mobile.

This energy and skill brought him into national fame. From 1867 to 1874 he was employed in the construction of the great steel arch bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis, which is one of the notable bridges of the world. It has a clear span of 570 feet. He had long given study to the condition of the Mississippi River, and laid before the Government a plan for a deep waterway from the Gulf of Mexico to the mouth of the Ohio River, one of the most gigantic hydraulic schemes ever proposed by man. It was based upon the idea of preventing the banks of the Mississippi from caving in. The Government contracted with him for a system of jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi.

He was fond of proposing and working out grand schemes, and among his propositions was one to build a ship railway across the Isthmus to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. He claimed it was more feasible than a canal, and less expensive. His proposition was to construct a railway, that would carry the largest steamship, in a sort of cradle, across the Isthmus. He received the Albert Medal from England for his scientific attainments. He died March 8, 1887.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

WHAT INDIANA WOMEN HAVE DONE.

The work of Indiana women should not be forgotten or left out of a history of the growth and progress of the State. Much of the present high standing of the State in the Union, and abroad, is due to the women of Indiana.

MRS. ZERELDA G. WALLACE.

In the cause of social reform Mrs. Zerelda G. Wallace has been the great leader in Indiana. She is but one year younger than the State, having been born August 6, 1817, in Millersburg, Kentucky. While yet in her girlhood her father removed to Indianapolis, and there, at the age of nineteen, she became the wife of David Wallace, then the Lieutenant Governor of the State, and afterwards one of its most distinguished Chief Executives. Her father was a physician, and a man of extensive reading, and imparted to her a love for literature. Her marriage with Governor Wallace brought her into close connection with the distinguished men of the State, and she imbibed a wide knowledge on all the great questions of the day—religious, political and scientific. She has been an absorber of knowledge all her life, until, as one writer has said, "To know her is a liberal education." She also acquired a high literary culture.

private school for girls, known as the "Girls' Classical School," which at once became successful, and within a few years became widely known as one of the best schools of the kind in the United States. Mrs. Sewall's profession is thus that of a teacher, her specialty being English Literature. Her school duties occupy the first and highest place in her attention.

From her infancy Mrs. Sewall was trained to a strong belief in the right of women to wider opportunities for education, and to a fuller share in the honors and profits of business. For many years she has been actively engaged in every cause that promised the advancement of women. She was one of the leading members of the National Woman Suffrage Association. She was one of the promoters of the International Council of Women, which convened at Washington in 1888, and conceived the idea of perpetuating its influence through permanent International and National Councils of Women. Mrs. Sewall was one of the committee that formulated the plan for the General Federation of Women's Clubs. She is a member of the Association for the Advancement of Women; an honorary member of the Union Internationale des Sciences et des Arts, of Paris; a member of the American Historical Association; of the Sorosis, and numerous other bodies of like character. She was one of the founders of the Indianapolis Woman's Club; of the Indianapolis Art Association; of the Indianapolis Equal Suffrage Society; of the Indiana State Suffrage Society; of the Indianapolis Rambai Circle; of the Indiana branch of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae; of the University Extension work in Indianapolis; of the Indianapolis Local Council of Women; of the Indianapolis Womans' Exchange, and of the Indianapolis Contemporary

Club. She also originated the plan of the Indianapolis Propylaeum, an incorporated joint stock company of women which has erected a handsome building for social and educational purposes.

Mrs. Sewall was appointed by Governor Hovey a member at large of the World's Fair Managers for Indiana, and was chairman of the committee on women's work, and a member of the committee on education in that body. Being president of the National Council of Women, and acquainted with many of the leading women of Europe, Mrs. Sewall was made the chairman of the committee on a World's Congress of Representative Women, to the success of which she devoted her energies and her time, spending several months in Europe. In Berlin she held many conferences with prominent women, and later visited Homburg by appointment with the Empress Frederick, who became deeply interested in the work as outlined by Mrs. Sewall. In Brussels she addressed the Women's League of Belgium, and in Paris gave an address in the Marie St. Sulpice before a large company of leading men and women. This address was widely noticed in the press of Russia France, England and Italy.

Mrs. Sewall's work has been devoted to the furtherance of organization among women. She has worked steadily for harmony and consolidation among conflicting interests, with an eye single to the permanent good. She labored earnestly and successfully to accomplish the union of the American and the National Suffrage Associations, and of the Eastern and Western branches of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae. Mrs. Sewall has also delivered many lectures on social, educational and reform topics, and her services as a lecturer are largely sought for. She is per-

haps at her best as an extemporaneous speaker, her style being clear, cogent and eloquent. She has also been a prolific writer for newspapers and magazines.

MRS. VIRGINIA C. MEREDITH.

An Indiana woman has broadened the field of woman's usefulness in a direction not usually taken by any but men. Mrs. Virginia Claypool Meredith was born November 5, 1848, in Fayette County, Indiana, her father, Austin B. Claypool, having also been born in the same County, while her mother, Hannah Petty Claypool, was born in the adjoining County of Wayne. Mrs. Meredith began her school career under the direction of Mrs. Richards, a daughter of that eminent educator, Professor Hoshour, and completed it by four years at Glendale College, near Cincinnati. In 1870 she married Henry Clay Meredith, a son of General Solomon Meredith. Dating from her marriage her home has been at Oakland Farm, near Cambridge City, in Wayne County. This farm was, by General Meredith, devoted to the breeding of shorthorn cattle and South-down sheep, a business carried on by his son, Henry C., who was a student of agriculture in its most advanced line, and at the time of his death, in 1882, was president of the State Board of Agriculture, and also a member of the General Assembly of the State, representing Wayne County. Under the careful and sympathetic training of her father, Mrs. Meredith early developed a taste for the farm, and an understanding of the business of farming. This taste and capacity were further developed by her congenial marriage, her husband sharing with her his knowledge and acquirements in the fascinating field of stock-breeding. The home at Oakland Farm has al-

ways been celebrated for its hospitality, and visitors from every section of the country added to the interests of a business delightful in itself.

Mr. and Mrs. Meredith together visited the important country homes of the United States and Canada, and thus it came to pass that Mrs. Meredith acquired a knowledge and formed an acquaintance of inestimable value, when, after the death of her husband, she determined to continue farming. Many women have farmed successfully, but Mrs. Meredith may be considered the pioneer in the highest type of farming, which embraces the growing of pure breeds of stock. Mrs. Meredith has so fully mastered the literature of the subject that she is invited to address meetings and to write for the highest class of agricultural and stock papers. She has given a special course on cattle in the Agricultural College of Purdue University. She has, under the auspices of Purdue University, been an officially accredited speaker at Farmers' Institutes in almost every County in Indiana, her popularity with the farming community being manifested by repeated calls to return year after year to the same County. Mrs. Meredith makes the breeding of short-horn cattle, south-down sheep and trotting horses a specialty. Her public sales of pedigreed stock have attracted discriminating purchasers from every section, which is, of course, the measure of her ability as a breeder of high-class stock.

Mrs. Meredith is interested in every movement that enlarges the opportunity of women. She has been specially active in club work, having been president of the Indiana Union of Literary Clubs, comprising one hundred and twenty clubs in various sections of the State. As a member of the Board of Lady Managers during the Columbian

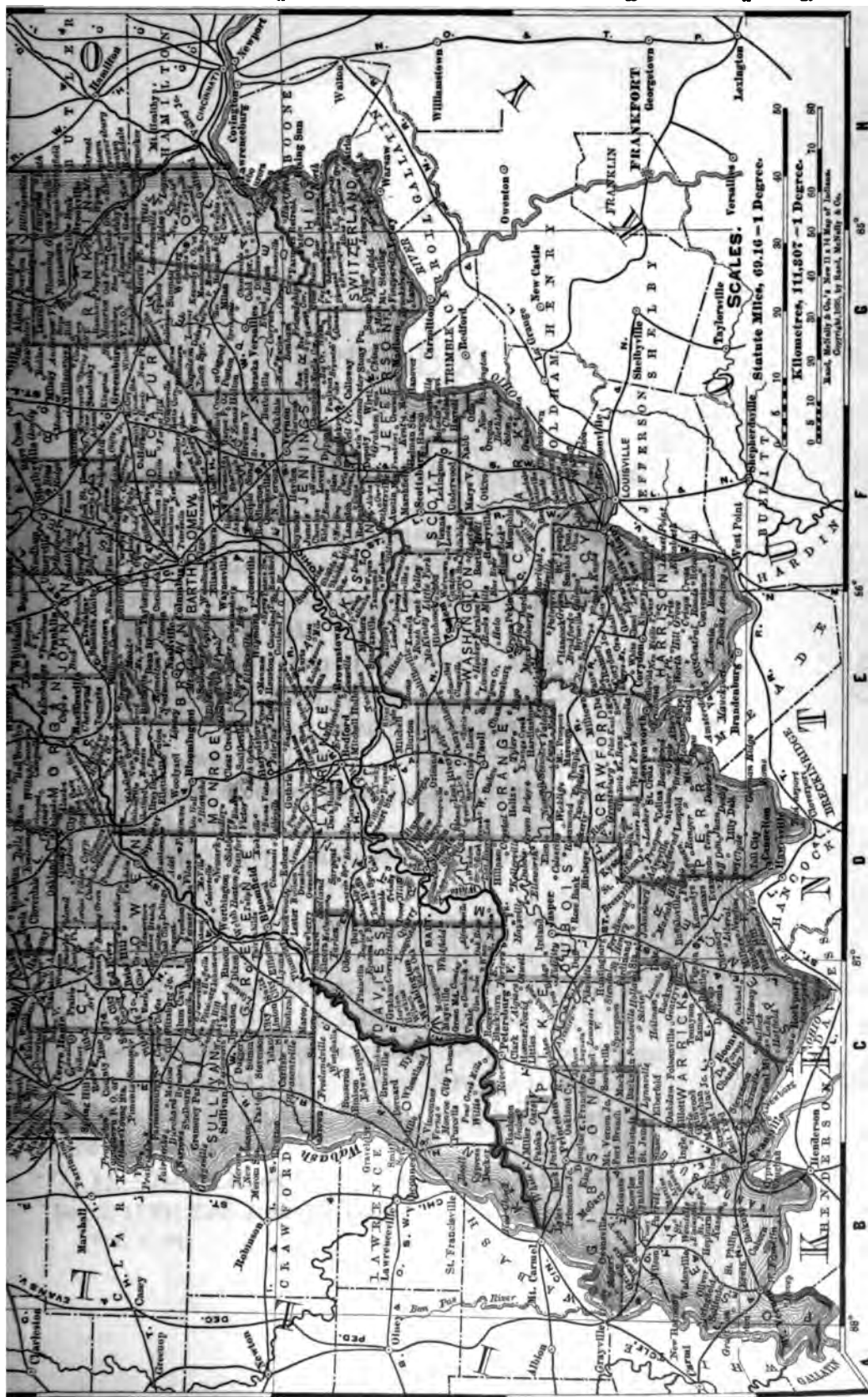
Exposition, Mrs. Meredith came into National prominence. With the president of the board she appeared before the committees of the Senate and House in Congress, to explain the purposes and plans of the board, asking appropriations, etc. As chairman of the committee on awards of the Board of Lady Managers, Mrs. Meredith had the responsibility of directing the two—the only two—original features of the Columbian Exposition. First, the appointment of women to serve on the International Board of Judges, for which Congress made a special appropriation of \$100,000; the selection of suitable women from the United States and other countries, that participated, involving laborious inquiry and careful judgment, as they were to be selected on account of their expert knowledge in the various lines of woman's work and their judicial temperament. In the administration of a work so novel and important many obstacles had to be met and overcome. The recognition of Mrs. Meredith's success was found in the fact that after the conscientious and intelligent work of the woman judges was understood by exhibitors, there was a marked request on the part of exhibitors to have their exhibits assigned to women for examination. And further proof was found in the fact, that before the final adjournment of the Board of Judges, in the several departments, resolutions were passed by the men judges commending the action of Congress in providing for the appointment of women judges.

The second original feature of the Exposition executed by Mrs. Meredith was the special resolution, formulated by her and passed by Congress, authorizing the bestowal of a diploma of honorable mention upon inventors, designers, and expert artisans, who by their skill assisted in the production or perfection of an exhibit that received an

award. Never before had any Government given direct recognition to labor. The execution of this resolution, which was passed by Congress after the close of the Exposition, involved a world-wide correspondence with exhibitors, in order to meet the requirements embodied in the provisions of the bill. The bestowal of the diplomas was received by artisans and inventors with the highest appreciation. Therefore recognition had been reserved for things; under this law it was given to the brain and hand that created the thing.

The educational and social condition of farmers has engaged the attention and energy of Mrs. Meredith in a marked degree. In connection with this work Mrs. Meredith was called by the Board of Regents of the Minnesota State University to inaugurate and organize a department for young women, in connection with the school of agriculture. Mrs. Meredith believes that the influence of women on public opinion should be more forceful. To that end she believes education should be not only toward general knowledge, but toward the environment of the individual. She believes young women from the farm, educated in an advanced scale of agriculture, will learn all that girls everywhere are learning, but with a bias toward the country. Taught its privileges and possibilities, its direct connection with the sciences, its influence on sociological questions, she must bring to the farm-home wider conceptions of life and its meaning.





APPENDIX.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

1.—George Washington, from 1789 to 1797; born February 22, 1732; died December 14, 1799.

2.—John Adams, from 1797 to 1801; born October 10, 1735; died July 4, 1826.

3.—Thomas Jefferson, from 1801 to 1809; born April 2, 1743; died July 4, 1826.

4.—James Madison, from 1809 to 1817; born March 16, 1751; died June 28, 1836.

5.—James Monroe, from 1817 to 1825; born April 28, 1758; died July 4, 1831.

6.—John Quincy Adams, from 1825 to 1829; born July 11, 1767; died February 23, 1848.

7.—Andrew Jackson, from 1829 to 1837; born, March 15, 1767; died June 8, 1845.

8.—Martin Van Buren, from 1837 to 1841; born December 5, 1782; died July 24, 1862.

9.—William Henry Harrison, 1841; born February 9, 1773; died April 4, 1841. Served only one month.

10.—John Tyler, from 1841 to 1845; born March 29, 1790; died January 17, 1862.

11.—James Knox Polk, from 1845 to 1849; born November 2, 1795; died June 15, 1849.

12.—Zachary Taylor, from 1849 to July 9, 1850; born November 24, 1784; died July 9, 1850.

13.—Millard Fillmore, from 1850 to 1853; born January 7, 1800; died March 8, 1874.

14.—Franklin Pierce, from 1853 to 1857; born November 23, 1804; died October 8, 1869.

15.—James Buchanan, from 1857 to 1861; born April 23, 1791; died June 1, 1868.

16.—Abraham Lincoln, from 1861 to April 15, 1865; born February 12, 1809; assassinated April 14, 1865.

17.—Andrew Johnson, from April 15, 1865 to 1869; born December 29, 1808; died July 31, 1875.

18.—Ulysses S. Grant, from 1869 to 1877; born April 27, 1822; died July 23, 1885.

19.—Rutherford Burchard Hayes, from 1877 to 1881; born October 4, 1822; died January 17, 1893.

20.—James Abram Garfield, from 1881 to September 19, 1881; born November 19, 1831; shot July 2, 1881, died September 19, 1881.

21.—Chester Allan Arthur, from September 19, 1881, to 1885; born October 5, 1830; died November 18, 1886.

22.—Grover Cleveland, from 1885 to 1889; born March 18, 1837.

23.—Benjamin Harrison, from 1889 to 1893; born August 20, 1833.

24.—Grover Cleveland, from 1893 to 1897.

25.—William McKinley, from 1897 to —; born February 26, 1844.

Thomas Jefferson was elected the first term by the House of Representatives, the electoral vote being a tie between him and Aaron Burr. Jefferson having been elected President, Burr became Vice President.

John Quincy Adams was elected by the House of Representatives. No candidate had received a majority of the electoral vote; Andrew Jackson had the greatest number, Adams the next and William H. Crawford the third, but the House decided in favor of Adams.

VICE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following is the list of Vice Presidents:

John Adams, 1789 to 1797.

Thomas Jefferson, 1797 to 1801.

Aaron Burr, 1801 to 1805.

George Clinton, 1805 to 1812.

Elbridge Gerry, 1813 to 1814.

Daniel D. Thompson, 1817 to 1825.

John C. Calhoun, 1825 to 1832.

Martin VanBuren, 1833 to 1837.

Richard M. Johnson, 1837 to 1841.

John Tyler, from March 4, 1841, to April 4, 1841.

George M. Dallas, 1845 to 1849.

Millard Fillmore, 1849 to 1850.

William R. King, from March 4, 1853, to April 18, 1853.

John C. Breckenridge, 1857 to 1861.

Hannibal Hamlin, 1861 to 1865.

Andrew Johnson, from March 4, 1865, to April 15, 1865.

Schuyler Colfax, 1869 to 1873.

Henry Wilson, 1873 to 1875.

William A. Wheeler, 1877 to 1881.

Chester A. Arthur, from March 4, 1881, to September 19, 1881.

Thomas A. Hendricks, from March 4, 1885, to November 5, 1885.

Levi P. Morton, 1889 to 1893.

Adlai E. Stevenson, 1893 to 1897.

G. A. Hobart, 1897 to —.

George Clinton died April 20, 1812, Elbridge Gerry died November 23, 1814; William R. King, April 18, 1853; Henry Wilson, November 23, 1875, and Thomas A. Hendricks, November 25, 1885. John C. Calhoun, resigned December 28, 1832.

John Tyler became President April 6, 1841; Millard Fillmore, July 9, 1850; Andrew Johnson, April 15, 1865, and Chester A. Arthur, September 19, 1881.

PRESIDENTS OF THE SENATE.

Senators who have presided over the Senate as Presidents pro tempore when there was no Vice President:

William H. Crawford, after the death of George Clinton.

John Gaillard, after the death of Elbridge Gerry.

Hugh L. White, after the resignation of John C. Calhoun.

Samuel L. Southard and Willie P. Mangum, after the death of John Tyler.

William R. King, during the Presidency of Millard Fillmore.

David R. Atchison and Jesse D. Bright, after the death of W. R. King.

Lafayette Foster and Benjamin F. Wade, during the Presidency of Andrew Johnson.

Thomas W. Ferry, after the death of Henry Wilson.

David Davis and George F. Edmunds, during the Presidency of C. A. Arthur.

John Sherman and John J. Ingalls, after the death of Thomas A. Hendricks.

SPEAKERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

1st Congress, F. A. Muhlenberg, Pennsylvania.

2d " Jonathan Trumbull, Connecticut.

3d	Congress,	F. A. Muhlenberg, Pennsylvania.
4th	"	Jonathan Dayton, New Jersey.
5th	"	Jonathan Dayton, New Jersey.
6th	"	Theodore Sedgwick, Massachusetts.
7th	"	Nathaniel Macon, North Carolina.
8th	"	Nathaniel Macon, North Carolina.
9th	"	Nathaniel Macon, North Carolina.
10th	"	Joseph B. Varnum, Massachusetts.
11th	"	Joseph B. Varnum, Massachusetts.
12th	"	Henry Clay, Kentucky.
13th	"	{ Henry Clay, Kentucky. Langdon Cheves, South Carolina.
14th	"	Henry Clay, Kentucky.
15th	"	Henry Clay, Kentucky.
16th	"	{ Henry Clay, Kentucky. John W. Taylor, New York.
17th	"	P. P. Barbour, Virginia.
18th	"	Henry Clay, Kentucky.
19th	"	John W. Taylor, New York.
20th	"	Andrew Stevenson, Virginia.
21st	"	Andrew Stevenson, Virginia.
22d	"	Andrew Stevenson, Virginia.
23d	"	{ Andrew Stevenson, Virginia. John Bell, Tennessee.
24th	"	James K. Polk, Tennessee.
25th	"	James K. Polk, Tennessee.
26th	"	R. M. T. Hunter, Virginia.
27th	"	John White, Kentucky.
28th	"	John W. Jones, Virginia.
29th	"	John W. Davis, Indiana.
30th	"	Robert C. Winthrop, Massachusetts.
31st	"	Howell Cobb, Georgia.

32d	Congress,	Linn Boyd, Kentucky.
33d	"	Linn Boyd, Kentucky.
34th	"	Nathaniel P. Banks, Massachusetts.
35th	"	James L. Orr, South Carolina.
36th	"	William Pennington, New Jersey.
37th	"	Galusha A. Grow, Pennsylvania.
38th	"	Schuyler Colfax, Indiana.
39th	"	Schuyler Colfax, Indiana.
40th	"	Schuyler Colfax, Indiana.
41st	"	James G. Blaine, Maine.
42d	"	James G. Blaine, Maine.
43d	"	James G. Blaine, Maine.
44th	"	{ Michael C. Kerr, Indiana. Samuel J. Randall, Pennsylvania.
45th	"	Samuel J. Randall, Pennsylvania.
46th	"	Samuel J. Randall, Pennsylvania.
47th	"	Joseph Warren Keifer, Ohio.
48th	"	John G. Carlisle, Kentucky.
49th	"	John G. Carlisle, Kentucky.
50th	"	John G. Carlisle, Kentucky.
51st	"	Thomas B. Reed, Maine.
52d	"	Charles F. Crisp, Georgia.
53d	"	Charles F. Crisp, Georgia.
54th	"	Thomas B. Reed, Maine.
55th	"	Thomas B. Reed, Maine.

SECRETARIES OF STATE.

Thomas Jefferson, Virginia, appointed September 26, 1789.

Edmund Randolph, Virginia, appointed January 2, 1794.

Timothy Pickering, Massachusetts, appointed December 10,
1795.

John Marshall, Virginia, appointed May 13, 1800.
James Madison, Virginia, appointed March 5, 1801.
Robert Smith, Maryland, appointed March 6, 1809.
James Monroe, Virginia, appointed April 2, 1811.
John Q. Adams, Massachusetts, appointed March 5, 1817.
Henry Clay, Kentucky, appointed March 7, 1825.
Martin Van Buren, New York, appointed March 6, 1829.
Edward Livingston, Louisiana, appointed May 24, 1831.
Louis McLane, Delaware, appointed May 29, 1833.
John Forsythe, Georgia, appointed June 27, 1834.
Daniel Webster, Massachusetts, appointed March 5, 1841.
Hugh S. Legare, South Carolina, appointed May 9, 1843.
Abel P. Upshur, Virginia, appointed July 24, 1843.
John C. Calhoun, South Carolina, appointed March 6, 1844.
James Buchanan, Pennsylvania, appointed March 5, 1845.
John M. Clayton, Delaware, appointed March 7, 1849.
Daniel Webster, Massachusetts, appointed July 22, 1850.
Edward Everett, Massachusetts, appointed November 6,
1852.
William L. Marcy, New York, appointed March 7, 1853.
Lewis Cass, Michigan, appointed March 6, 1857.
Jeremiah S. Black, Pennsylvania, appointed December 17,
1860.
William H. Seward, New York, appointed March 5, 1861.
Elihu B. Washburne, Illinois, appointed March 5, 1869.
Hamilton Fish, New York, appointed March 11, 1869.
William M. Evarts, New York, appointed March 12, 1877.
James G. Blaine, Maine, appointed March 5, 1881.
Frédéric T. Frelinghuysen, New Jersey, appointed Decem-
ber 12, 1881.
Thomas F. Bayard, Delaware, appointed March 6, 1885.
James G. Blaine, Maine, appointed March 5, 1889.

John W. Foster, Indiana, appointed June 29, 1892.

Walter Q. Gresham, Illinois, appointed March 6, 1893.

Richard Olney, Massachusetts, appointed June 8, 1895.

John Sherman, Ohio, appointed March 5, 1897.

Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Adams, Van Buren and Buchanan afterward became Presidents, and John Marshall became Chief Justice of the United States.

Abel P. Upshur was killed February 28, 1844, by the explosion of a gun on board the United States steamer Princeton.

SECRETARIES OF THE TREASURY.

Alexander Hamilton, New York, appointed September 11, 1789.

Oliver Wolcott, Connecticut, appointed February 3, 1795.

Samuel Dexter, Massachusetts, appointed December 31, 1800.

Albert Gallatin, Pennsylvania, appointed May 14, 1801.

George W. Campbell, Tennessee, appointed February 9, 1814.

Alexander J. Dallas, Pennsylvania, appointed October 6, 1814.

William H. Crawford, Georgia, appointed October 22, 1816.

Richard Rush, Pennsylvania, appointed March 7, 1825.

Samuel D. Ingham, Pennsylvania, appointed March 6, 1829.

Louis McLane, Delaware, appointed August 8, 1831.

William J. Duane, Pennsylvania, appointed May 29, 1833.

Roger B. Taney, Maryland, appointed September 23, 1833.

Levi Woodbury, New Hampshire, appointed June 27, 1834.

Thomas Ewing, Ohio, appointed March 5, 1841.

Walter Forward, Pennsylvania, appointed September 13, 1841.

John C. Spencer, New York, appointed March 3, 1843.
George M. Bibb, Kentucky, appointed June 15, 1844.
Robert J. Walker, Mississippi, appointed March 5, 1845.
William M. Meredith, Pennsylvania, appointed March 8,
1849.
Thomas Corwin, Ohio, appointed July 23, 1850.
James Guthrie, Kentucky, appointed March 7, 1853.
Howell Cobb, Georgia, appointed March 6, 1857.
Phillip F. Thomas, Maryland, appointed December 12, 1860.
John A. Dix, New York, appointed January 11, 1861.
Salmon P. Chase, Ohio, appointed March 7, 1861.
William P. Fessenden Maine, appointed July 1, 1864.
Hugh McCulloch, Indiana, appointed March 7, 1865.
Alexander T. Stewart, New York, appointed March 5, 1869.
George S. Boutwell, Massachusetts, appointed March 11,
1869.
William A. Richardson, Massachusetts, appointed March 17,
1873.
Benjamin H. Bristow, Kentucky, appointed June 4, 1874.
Lot M. Morrill, Maine, appointed July 7, 1876.
John Sherman, Ohio, appointed March 8, 1877.
William Windom, Minnesota, appointed March 5, 1881.
Charles J. Folger, New York, appointed October 27, 1881.
Walter Q. Gresham, Indiana, appointed September 24, 1884.
Hugh McCulloch, Indiana, appointed October 28, 1884.
Daniel Manning, New York, appointed March 6, 1885.
Charles S. Fairchild, New York, appointed March 31, 1887.
William Windom, Minnesota, appointed March 5, 1889.
Charles Foster, Ohio, appointed February 24, 1891.
John G. Carlisle, Kentucky, appointed March 6, 1893.
Lyman J. Gage, Illinois, appointed March 5, 1897.
The nomination of Roger B. Taney was rejected by the
Senate.

The name of Alexander T. Stewart was withdrawn on account of being ineligible as an importer.

SECRETARIES OF WAR.

Henry Knox, Massachusetts, appointed September 12, 1789.
Timothy Pickering, Massachusetts, appointed January 2, 1795.
John McHenry, Maryland, appointed January 27, 1796.
John Marshall, Virginia, appointed May 7, 1800.
Samuel Dexter, Massachusetts, appointed May 13, 1800.
Roger Griswold, Connecticut, appointed February 3, 1801.
Henry Dearborn, Massachusetts, appointed March 5, 1801.
William Eustis, Massachusetts, appointed March 7, 1809.
John Armstrong, New York, appointed January 13, 1813.
James Monroe, Virginia, appointed September 27, 1814.
William H. Crawford, Georgia, appointed March 3, 1815.
Isaac Shelby, Kentucky, appointed March 5, 1817.
George Graham, Virginia, appointed April 7, 1817.
John C. Calhoun, South Carolina, appointed October 8, 1817.
James Barbour, Virginia, appointed March 7, 1825.
Peter B. Porter, New York, appointed May 26, 1828.
John H. Eaton, Tennessee, appointed March 9, 1829.
Lewis Cass, Michigan, appointed August 1, 1831.
Benjamin F. Butler, New York, appointed March 3, 1837.
Joel R. Poinsett, South Carolina, appointed March 7, 1837.
John Bell, Tennessee, appointed March 5, 1841.
John McLean, Ohio, appointed September 13, 1841.
John C. Spencer, New York, appointed October 12, 1841.
James M. Porter, Pennsylvania, appointed March 8, 1843.
William Wilkins, Pennsylvania, appointed February 15, 1844.

William L. Marcy, New York, appointed March 5, 1845.
George W. Crawford, Georgia, appointed March 8, 1849.
Charles M. Conrad, Louisiana, appointed August 15, 1850.
Jefferson Davis, Mississippi, appointed March 5, 1853.
John B. Floyd, Virginia, appointed March 6, 1857.
Joseph Holt, Kentucky, appointed January 18, 1861
Simon Cameron, Pennsylvania, appointed March 5, 1861.
Edwin M. Stanton, Pennsylvania, appointed January 15,
1862.
Ulysses S. Grant, Illinois, appointed August 12, 1867.
Edwin M. Stanton, Pennsylvania, appointed January 13,
1868.
John M. Schofield, Missouri, appointed May 28, 1868.
John A. Rawlins, Illinois, appointed March 11, 1869.
William T. Sherman, Ohio, appointed September 9, 1869.
William W. Belknap, Iowa, appointed October 25, 1869.
Alphonso Taft, Ohio, appointed March 8, 1876.
J. Donald Cameron, Pennsylvania, appointed May 22, 1876.
George W. McCrary, Iowa, appointed March 12, 1877.
Alexander Ramsey, Minnesota, appointed December 10,
1879.
Robert T. Lincoln, Illinois, appointed March 5, 1881.
William C. Endicott, Massachusetts, appointed March 6,
1885.
Redfield Proctor, Vermont, appointed March 5, 1889.
Stephen B. Elkins, West Virginia, appointed December 22,
1891.
Daniel S. Lamont, New York, appointed March 6, 1893.
Russel A. Alger, Michigan, appointed March 5, 1897.

Action on the nomination of John Marshall was postponed by the Senate, and on May 13, 1800, he was made Secretary of State.

Isaac Shelby declined; Edwin M. Stanton was suspended by President Johnson August 12, 1867, and restored by the Senate January 13, 1866.

SECRETARIES OF THE NAVY.

George Cabot, Massachusetts, appointed May 3, 1798.
Benjamin Stoddert, Maryland, appointed May 21, 1798.
Robert Smith, Maryland, appointed July 15, 1801.
Jacob Crowninshield, Massachusetts, appointed March 2, 1805.
Paul Hamilton, South Carolina, appointed March 7, 1809.
William Jones, Pennsylvania, appointed January 12, 1813.
B. W. Crowninshield, Massachusetts, appointed December 17, 1814.
Smith Thompson, New York, appointed November 9, 1818.
John Rodgers, Maryland, appointed September 1, 1823.
Samuel L. Southard, New Jersey, appointed September 16, 1823.
John Branch, North Carolina, appointed March 9, 1829.
Levi Woodbury, New Hampshire, appointed May 23, 1831.
Mahlon Dickerson, New Jersey, appointed June 30, 1834.
James K. Paulding, New York, appointed June 30, 1838.
George E. Badger, North Carolina, appointed March 5, 1841.
Abel P. Upshur, Virginia, appointed September 13, 1841.
David Henshaw, Massachusetts, appointed July 24, 1843.
Thomas W. Gilmer, Virginia, appointed February 15, 1844.
John Y. Mason, Virginia, appointed March 14, 1844.
George Bancroft, Massachusetts, appointed March 10, 1845.
John Y. Mason, Virginia, appointed September 9, 1846.
William B. Preston, Virginia, appointed March 8, 1849.
William A. Graham, North Carolina, appointed July 22, 1850.

John P. Kennedy, Maryland, appointed July 22, 1852.
James C. Dobbin, North Carolina, appointed March 7, 1853.
Isaac Toucey, Connecticut, appointed March 6, 1857.
Gideon Welles, Connecticut, appointed March 5, 1861.
Adolph E. Borie, Pennsylvania, appointed March 5, 1869.
George M. Robeson, New Jersey, appointed June 25, 1869.
Richard W. Thompson, Indiana, appointed March 12, 1877.
Nathan Goff, West Virginia, appointed January 6, 1881.
William H. Hunt, Louisiana, appointed March 5, 1881,
William E. Chandler, New Hampshire, appointed April 1, 1882.
William C. Whitney, New York, appointed March 6, 1885.
Benjamin F. Tracy, New York, appointed March 5, 1889.
Hilary A. Herbert, Alabama, appointed March 6, 1893.
John D. Long, Massachusetts, appointed March 5, 1897.

George Cabot and John Rodgers declined the appointment.

Thomas W. Gilmer was killed February 28, 1844, by the explosion of a gun on board the United States steamer Princeton.

Naval affairs were under the control of the Secretary of War until the Navy was made a separate department by Act of April 30, 1798.

SECRETARIES OF THE INTERIOR.

Thomas Ewing, Ohio, appointed March 7, 1849.
Alexander H. H. Stuart, Virginia, appointed September 12, 1850.
Robert McClelland, Michigan, appointed March 7, 1853.
Jacob Thompson, Mississippi, appointed March 6, 1857.
Caleb B. Smith, Indiana, appointed March 5, 1861.
John P. Usher, Indiana, appointed January 8, 1863.

James Harlan, Iowa, appointed May 15, 1865.
Orville H. Browning, Illinois, appointed July 27, 1866.
Jacob D. Cox, Ohio, appointed March 5, 1869.
Columbus Delano, Ohio, appointed November 1, 1870.
Zachariah Chandler, Michigan, appointed October 19, 1875.
Carl Schurz, Missouri, appointed March 12, 1877.
Samuel J. Kirkwood, Iowa, appointed March 5, 1881.
Henry M. Teller, Colorado, appointed April 6, 1882.
Lucius Q. C. Lamar, Mississippi, appointed March 6, 1885.
John W. Noble, Missouri, appointed March 5, 1889.
Hoke Smith, Georgia, appointed March 6, 1893.
David R. Francis, Missouri, appointed September 1, 1896.
Cornelius N. Bliss, New York, appointed March 5, 1897.

The Department of the Interior was not created until 1849.

POSTMASTERS GENERAL.

Samuel Osgood, Massachusetts, appointed September 26, 1789.
Timothy Pickering, Massachusetts, appointed August 12, 1791.
Joseph Habersham, Georgia, appointed February 25, 1795.
Gideon Granger, Connecticut, appointed November 28, 1801.
Return J. Meigs, Jr., Ohio, appointed March 17, 1814.
John McLean, Ohio, appointed June 26, 1823.
William T. Barry, Kentucky, appointed March 9, 1829.
Amos Kendall, Kentucky, appointed May 1, 1835.
John M. Niles, Connecticut, appointed May 25, 1840.
Francis Granger, New York, appointed March 6, 1841.
Charles A. Wickliffe, Kentucky, appointed September 13, 1841.
Cave Johnson, Tennessee, appointed March 5, 1845.
Jacob Collamer, Vermont, appointed March 7, 1849.

Nathan K. Hall, New York, appointed July 20, 1850.
Samuel D. Hubbard, Connecticut, appointed August 31, 1852.
James Campbell, Pennsylvania, appointed March 7, 1853.
Aaron V. Brown, Tennessee, appointed March 6, 1857.
Joseph Holt, Kentucky, appointed March 14, 1859.
Horatio King, New Hampshire, appointed February 12, 1861.
Montgomery Blair, Maryland, appointed March 5, 1861.
William Dennison, Ohio, appointed September 24, 1864.
Alexander W. Randall, Wisconsin, appointed July 25, 1866.
John A. J. Creswell, Maryland, appointed March 5, 1869.
James W. Marshall, New Jersey, appointed July 3, 1874.
Marshall Jewell, Connecticut, appointed August 24, 1874.
James M. Tyner, Indiana, appointed July 12, 1876.
David M. Key, Tennessee, appointed March 12, 1877.
Horace Maynard, Tennessee, appointed June 2, 1880.
Thomas L. James, New York, appointed March 5, 1881.
Timothy O. Howe, Wisconsin, appointed December 20, 1881.
Walter Q. Gresham, Indiana, appointed April 4, 1883.
Frank Hatton, Iowa, appointed October 14, 1884.
William F. Vilas, Wisconsin, appointed March 6, 1885.
John Wanamaker, Pennsylvania, appointed March 5, 1889.
Wilson S. Bissell, New York, appointed March 6, 1893.
William L. Wilson, West Virginia, appointed March 1, 1895.
James A. Gary, Maryland, appointed March 5, 1897.

The Postmaster General was not a member of the Cabinet until 1829. Prior to that time he was a subordinate of the Treasury Department.

ATTORNEYS GENERAL.

Edmund Randolph, Virginia, appointed September 26, 1789.

William Bradford, Pennsylvania, appointed January 28, 1794.

Charles Lee, Virginia, appointed December 10, 1795.

Theophilus Parsons, Massachusetts, appointed February 20, 1801.

Levi Lincoln, Massachusetts, appointed March 5, 1801.

Robert Smith, Maryland, appointed March 2, 1805.

John Breckenridge, Kentucky, appointed August 7, 1805.

Caesar A. Rodney, Maryland, appointed January 20, 1807.

William Pinckney, Maryland, appointed December 11, 1811.

Richard Rush, Pennsylvania, appointed February 10, 1814.

William Wirt, Virginia, appointed November 13, 1817.

J. McPherson Berrien, Georgia, appointed March 9, 1829.

Roger B. Taney, Maryland, appointed July 20, 1831.

Benjamin F. Butler, New York, appointed November 15, 1833.

Felix Grundy, Tennessee, appointed September 1, 1838.

Henry D. Gilpin, Pennsylvania, appointed January 10, 1840.

John J. Crittenden, Kentucky, appointed March 5, 1841.

Hugh S. Legare, South Carolina, appointed September 13, 1841.

John Nelson, Maryland, appointed July 1, 1843.

John Y. Mason, Virginia, appointed March 5, 1845.

Nathan Clifford, Maine, appointed October 17, 1846.

Isaac Toucey, Connecticut, appointed June 21, 1848.

Reverdy Johnson, Maryland, appointed March 7, 1849.

John J. Crittenden, Kentucky, appointed July 20, 1850.

Caleb Cushing, Massachusetts, appointed March 7, 1853.

Jeremiah S. Black, Pennsylvania, appointed March 6, 1857.
Edwin M. Stanton, Pennsylvania, appointed December 20, 1860.
Edward Bates, Missouri, appointed March 5, 1861.
Titian J. Coffey, appointed June 22, 1863.
James Speed, Kentucky, appointed December 2, 1864.
Henry Stanbery, Ohio, appointed July 23, 1866.
William M. Evarts, New York, appointed July 15, 1868.
E. R. Hoar, Massachusetts, appointed March 5, 1869.
Amos T. Akerman, Georgia, appointed June 23, 1870.
George H. Williams, Oregon, appointed December 14, 1871.
Edwards Pierrepont, New York, appointed April 26, 1875.
Alphonso Taft, Ohio, appointed May 22, 1876.
Charles Devens, Massachusetts, appointed March 12, 1877.
Wayne McVeagh, Pennsylvania, appointed March 5, 1881.
Benjamin H. Brewster, Pennsylvania, appointed December 19, 1881.
Augustus H. Garland, Arkansas, appointed March 6, 1885.
William H. H. Miller, Indiana, appointed March 5, 1889.
Richard Olney, Massachusetts, appointed March 6, 1893.
Judson Harmon, Ohio, appointed June 8, 1895.
Joseph McKenna, California, appointed March 5, 1897.

SECRETARIES OF AGRICULTURE.

Jeremiah M. Rusk, Wisconsin, appointed March 5, 1889.
Julius Sterling Morton, Nebraska, appointed March 5, 1893.
James Wilson, Iowa, appointed March 5, 1897.

The Department of Agriculture was created in 1889.

**ROSTER OF TERRITORIAL AND STATE OFFICERS
FROM 1787 TO 1897.**

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Arthur St. Clair, Governor Northwest Territory from 1787 to 1800.

John Gibson (acting), from 1800 to January 10, 1801.

William H. Harrison, from 1801 to 1812.

Thomas Posey, from 1812 to 1816.

GOVERNORS OF THE STATE.

Jonathan Jennings, from 1816 to 1822.

Ratliff Boon (acting), from September 12 to December 5, 1822.

William Hendricks, from 1822 to 1825.

James B. Ray (acting), February 12 to December 11, 1825.

James B. Ray, from 1825, to 1831.

Noah Noble, from 1831 to 1837.

David Wallace, from 1837 to 1840.

Samuel Bigger, from 1840 to 1843.

James Whitcomb, from 1843 to 1848.

Paris C. Dunning (acting), from 1848 to 1849.

Joseph A. Wright, from 1849 to 1857.

Ashbel P. Willard, from 1857 to 1860.

Abram A. Hammond (acting), from 1860 to 1861.

Henry S. Lane, 1861.

Oliver P. Morton (acting), from 1861 to 1865.

Oliver P. Morton, from 1865 to 1867.

Conrad Baker (acting), from 1867 to 1869.

Conrad Baker, from 1869 to 1873.

Thomas A. Hendricks, from 1873 to 1877.

James D. Williams, from 1877 to 1880.

Isaac P. Gray (acting), from 1880 to 1881.

Albert G. Porter, from 1881 to 1885.

Isaac P. Gray, from 1885 to 1889.

Alvin P. Hovey, from 1889 to 1891.

Ira J. Chase (acting), from November 24, 1891, to January 9, 1893.

Claude Matthews, from 1893 to 1897.

James A. Mount, from 1897 to —.

William Henry Harrison was appointed Governor of Indiana Territory May 13, 1800, but was not sworn in until January 10, 1801. John Gibson, Secretary of the Territory, acted as Governor until General Harrison took the oath. When General Harrison took command of the army of the frontier, during the war with Great Britain, General Gibson again acted as Governor for several months until Mr. Posey was appointed.

Jonathan Jennings was elected to Congress, from the Second district, and resigned the office of Governor September 12, 1822. Ratliff Boon, Lieutenant Governor, served for the remainder of the term. On the 12th of February, 1825, Governor William Hendricks was elected to the United States Senate, and resigned the Governorship. At the time there was no Lieutenant Governor, Ratliff Boon having resigned that office, and James Brown Ray, President pro tempore of the Senate, became acting Governor.

Governor Whitcomb was elected to the United States Senate, December 27, 1848, and Lieutenant Governor Paris C. Dunning became acting Governor.

Governor Willard died October 3, 1860, and was succeeded by Lieutenant Governor Abram A. Hammond.

Governor Henry S. Lane was elected to the United States Senate January 16, 1861, and Oliver P. Morton, Lieutenant Governor, succeeded.

Governor Morton was elected to the Senate January 23, 1867, and was succeeded by Lieutenant Governor Conrad Baker. In December, 1865, Governor Morton visited Europe, and during his absence of several months, Mr. Baker was acting Governor.

Governor Williams died November 20, 1880, and was succeeded by Isaac P. Gray, Lieutenant Governor.

Governor Hovey died November 23, 1891, and was succeeded by Lieutenant Governor Ira J. Chase.

LIEUTENANT GOVERNORS.

Christopher Harrison, from 1816 to 1819.

Ratliff Boon, from 1819 to 1825.

John H. Thompson, from 1825 to 1828.

Milton Stapp, from 1828 to 1831.

David Wallace, from 1831 to 1837.

David Hillis, from 1837 to 1840.

Samuel Hall, from 1840 to 1843.

Jesse D. Bright, from 1843 to 1845.

Godlove S. Orth (acting), 1845.

James G. Reed (acting), 1846.

Paris C. Dunning, from 1846 to 1848.

James G. Reed (acting), 1849.

James H. Lane, from 1849 to 1852.

Ashbel P. Willard, from 1853 to 1857.

Abram A. Hammond, from 1857 to 1860.

John R. Cravens (acting), from 1861 to 1863.
Paris C. Dunning (acting), from 1863 to 1865.
Conrad Baker, from 1865 to 1867.
Will Cumback (acting), from 1867 to 1869.
Will Cumback, from 1869 to 1873 (resigned).
George W. Friedley (acting), from 1872 to 1873.
Leonidas Sexton, from 1873 to 1877.
Isaac P. Gray, from 1877 to 1880.
Frederick W. Viehe (acting), 1881.
Thomas Hanna, from 1881 to 1885.
Mahlon D. Manson, from 1885 to 1887.
A. G. Smith (acting), from 1887 to 1889.
Ira J. Chase, from 1889 to November 24, 1891.
Francis M. Griffith (acting), from 1891 to 1893.
Mortimer Nye, from 1893 to 1897.
William S. Haggard, from 1897 to —.

In 1886, under a proclamation by Governor Gray, the people voted on candidates to fill the unexpired term of Mahlon D. Manson. Robert S. Robertson was elected, and was recognized by the House and the administrative officers, while the Senate and Governor recognized A. G. Smith..

SECRETARIES OF STATE.

John Gibson (Territorial), from 1800 to 1816.
Robert A. New, from 1816 to 1825.
William W. Week, from 1825 to 1829.
James Morrison, from 1829 to 1833.
William Sheets, from 1833 to 1837.
William J. Brown, from 1837 to 1841.
William Sheets, from 1841 to 1845.
John H. Thompson, from 1845 to 1849.

Charles H. Test, from 1849 to 1853.
Nehemiah Hayden, from 1853 to 1855.
Erasmus B. Collins, from 1855 to 1857.
Daniel McClure, from 1857 to 1859. (Resigned.)
Cyrus L. Dunham, from 1859 to 1861. (Appointed.)
William A. Peele, from 1861 to 1863.
James A. Athon, from 1863 to 1865.
Nelson Trusler, from 1865 to 1869.
Max F. A. Hoffman, from 1869 to 1871.
Norman Eddy, from 1871 to 1872. (Died.)
John H. Farquhar, from 1872 to 1873. (Appointed to fill
vacancy.)
William W. Curry, from 1873 to 1875.
John E. Neff, from 1875 to 1879.
John G. Shanklin, from 1879 to 1881.
Emanuel R. Hawn, from 1881 to 1883.
William R. Myers, from 1883 to 1887.
Charles F. Griffin, from 1887 to 1891.
Claude Matthews, from 1891 to January 9, 1893. (Resigned.)
Myron D. King, from January 9, 1893 to Jan. 17, 1893. (Ap-
pointed.)
William R. Myers, from 1893 to 1895.
William D. Owen, from 1895 to —

AUDITORS OF PUBLIC ACCOUNTS.

Peter Jones, commisisoned September 5, 1805; resigned in
1810.
William Prince, commissioned April 13, 1810; resigned in
1813.
General W. Johnston, commissioned January 20, 1813; re-
signed in 1813.

William Prince, commissioned February 8, 1813; resigned in 1813.

Davis Floyd, commissioned June 15, 1813; served till December, 1816.

AUDITORS OF STATE.

William H. Lilley, from 1816 to 1828.

Benjamin I. Blythe, from 1828 to 1829.

Morris Morris, from 1829 to 1844.

Horatio J. Harris, from 1844 to 1847.

Douglas Maguire, from 1847 to 1850.

Erastus W. H. Ellis, from 1850 to 1853.

John P. Dunn, from 1853 to 1855.

Hiram E. Talbott, from 1855 to 1857.

John W. Dodd, from 1857 to 1861.

Albert Lange, from 1861 to 1863.

Joseph Ristine, from 1863 to 1865.

Thomas P. McCarthy, from 1865 to 1869.

John D. Evans, from 1869 to 1871.

John C. Shoemaker, from 1871 to 1873.

James A. Wildman, from 1873 to 1875.

Ebenezer Henderson, from 1875 to 1879.

Mahlon D. Manson, from 1879 to 1881.

Edward H. Wolfe, from 1881 to 1883.

James H. Rice, from 1883 to 1887.

Bruce Carr, from 1887 to 1891.

John O. Henderson, from 1891 to 1895.

Americus C. Daily, from 1895 to —

TREASURERS OF INDIANA TERRITORY.

William McIntosh, commissioned February 9, 1801; removed for cause.

James Johnson, commissioned September 4, 1805; resigned in 1813.

General W. Johnston, commissioned May 29, 1813; served until December, 1816.

TREASURERS OF STATE.

Daniel C. Lane, from 1816 to 1823.

Samuel Merrill, from 1823 to 1835.

Nathan B. Palmer, from 1835 to 1841.

George H. Dunn, from 1841 to 1844.

Royal Mayhew, from 1844 to 1847.

Samuel Hannah, from 1847 to 1850.

James P. Drake, from 1850 to 1853.

Elijah Newland, from 1853 to 1855.

William R. Noffsinger, from 1855 to 1857.

Aquilla Jones, from 1857 to 1859.

Nathaniel F. Cunningham, from 1859 to 1861.

Jonathan S. Harvey, from 1861 to 1863.

Matthew L. Brett, from 1863 to 1865.

John I. Morrison, from 1865 to 1867.

Nathan Kimball, from 1867 to 1871.

James B. Ryan, from 1871 to 1873.

John B. Glover, from 1873 to 1875.

Benjamin C. Shaw, from 1875 to 1879.

William Flemming, from 1879 to 1881.

Roswell S. Hill, from 1881 to 1883.

John J. Cooper, from 1883 to 1887.

Julius A. Lemcke, from 1887 to 1891.

Albert Gall, from 1891 to 1895.

Frederick J. Scholz, from 1895 to —

ATTORNEYS GENERAL—INDIANA TERRITORY.

John Rice Jones, commissioned January 29, 1801; resigned in 1804.

Benjamin Parke, commissioned August 4, 1804; resigned 1808.

Thomas Randolph, commissioned June 2, 1808; killed at Battle of Tippecanoe.

OF THE STATE.

James Morrison, from March, 1855.

Joseph E. McDonald, from December, 1857.

James G. Jones, from December, 1859.

John P. Usher, from November, 1861.

Oscar B. Hord, from November, 1862.

Delana E. Williamson, from November, 1864.

Bayless W. Hanna, from November, 1870.

James C. Denny, from November, 1872.

Clarence A. Buskirk, from November, 1874.

Thomas W. Woollen, from November, 1878.

Daniel P. Baldwin, from November, 1880.

Francis T. Hord, from November, 1882.

Louis T. Mitchner, from November, 1886.

Alonzo G. Smith, from November, 1890.

William A. Ketcham, from November, 1894.

SUPERINTENDENTS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

William C. Larrabee, from 1852 to 1855.

Caleb Mills, from 1855 to 1857.

William C. Larrabee, from 1857 to 1859.

Samuel L. Rugg, from 1859 to 1861.

Miles J. Fletcher, from 1861 to 1862. (Killed on Railroad.)

Samuel K. Hoshour, from 1862. (Appointed.)

Samuel L. Rugg, from 1862 to 1865.

George W. Hoss, from 1865 to 1869.

Barnabas C. Hobbs, from 1869 to 1871.

Milton B. Hopkins, from 1871 to 1874. (Died.)

Alexander C. Hopkins, from 1874 to 1875. (Appointed.)

James H. Smart, from 1875 to 1881.

James M. Bloss, from 1881 to 1883.

John W. Holcombe, from 1883 to 1887.

Harvey M. LaFollette, from 1887 to 1891.

Hervey D. Vories, from 1891 to 1895.

David M. Geeting, from 1895 to —

CLERKS SUPREME COURT.

TERRITORIAL—STATE.

Daniel Lymmes, from 1794 to 1804.

Henry Hurst, from 1804 to 1817.

E. Macdonald, from 1817 to 1820.

Henry P. Coburn, from 1820 to 1852.

William B. Beach, from 1852 to 1860.

John P. Jones, from 1860 to 1864.

Laz. Noble, from 1864 to 1868.

Theodore W. McCoy, from 1868 to 1872.

Charles Scholl, from 1872 to 1876.

Gabriel Schmuck, from 1876 to 1880.

Daniel Royse, from 1880 to 1881. (Died.)

Jonathan W. Gordon, from 1881 to 1882. (Appointed.)

Simon P. Sheerin, from 1882 to 1886.
William T. Noble, from 1886 to 1890.
Andrew M. Sweeney, from 1890 to 1894.
Alexander Hess, from 1894 to —.

REPORTERS OF SUPREME COURT.

Isaac Blackford (one of the Judges), from 1817 to 1850.
Horace E. Carter, from 1852 to 1853. (Died.)
Albert G. Porter, from 1853 to 1857. (Appointed.)
Gordon Tanner, from 1857 to 1861.
Benjamin Harrison, from 1861 to 1863. (Office declared vacant.)
Michael C. Kerr, from 1863 to 1864. (To fill vacancy.)
Benjamin Harrison, from 1865 to 1869.
James B. Black, from 1869 to 1877.
Augustus N. Martin, from 1877 to 1881.
Francis M. Dice, from 1881 to 1885.
John W. Kern, from 1885 to 1889.
John L. Griffiths, from 1889 to 1893.
Sidney R. Moon, from 1893 to 1897.
Charles F. Remy, from 1897 to —

CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

John Collett, from 1879 to 1881.
John B. Conner, from 1881 to 1883.
William A. Peelle, Jr., from 1883 to 1894.
Simeon J. Thompson, from 1894. (Resigned.)
John B. Connor (appointed), from 1897 to —.

STATE GEOLOGISTS.

David Dale Owen, from 1837 to 1838.

Ryland T. Brown, 1853.

David Dale Owen, 1859.

Richard Owen, from 1859 to 1861.

Edward T. Cox, from 1869 to 1879.

John Collett, from 1879 to 1885.

Maurice Thompson, from 1885 to 1888.

Sylvester S. Gorby, from 1888 to 1894.

Willis S. Blatchley, from 1894 to —

TERRITORIAL JUDGES.

William Clarke, Henry Vanderburgh, John Griffin, appointed July 4, 1800.

JUDGES OF THE SUPREME COURT.

James Scott, from 1816 to 1831.

John Johnson, from 1816 to 1817.

Jesse L. Holman, from 1816 to 1831.

Isaac Blackford, from 1817 to 1853.

Stephen C. Stevens, from 1831 to 1836.

John T. McKinney, from 1831 to 1837.

Charles Dewey, from 1836 to 1847.

Jeremiah Sullivan, from 1837 to 1846.

Samuel E. Perkins, from 1846 to 1865.

Thomas L. Smith, from 1847 to 1853.

Andrew Davison, from 1853 to 1865.

William Z. Stuart, from 1853 to 1857.

Addison L. Roache, from 1853 to 1854.

Alvin P. Hovey, from — to 1854.

Samuel B. Gookins, from 1854 to 1857.

James L. Worden, from 1858 to 1865.

James M. Hanna, from 1858 to 1865.

Charles A. Ray, from 1865 to 1871.

Jehu T. Elliott, from 1865 to 1871.

James S. Frazer, from 1865 to 1871.

Robert S. Gregory, from 1865 to 1871.

James L. Worden, from 1871 to 1882. (Resigned December, 1882.)

Alexander C. Downey, from 1871 to 1877.

Samuel A. Buskirk, from 1871 to 1877.

Andrew L. Osborne, from 1872 to 1874.

Horace P. Biddle, from 1874 to 1880.

William E. Niblack, from 1877 to 1889.

George V. Howk, from 1877 to 1889.

Samuel E. Perkins, from 1877 to 1879.

John T. Scott, from 1879 to 1880.

William S. Wood, from 1881 to 1883. (Resigned May 8, 1883.)

Byron K. Elliott, from 1881 to 1893.

William H. Coombs, from December 2, 1882 to 1883.

Edwin P. Hammond, from 1883 to 1885.

Allen Zollars, from 1883 to 1889.

Joseph A. S. Mitchell, from 1885 to December 1890. (Died 1890.)

Walter Olds, from 1889 to June 15, 1893. (Resigned June 15, 1893.)

John D. Berkshire, from 1889 to February, 1891. (Died February, 1891.)

Elias D. Coffey, from 1889 to 1895.

Joseph S. Dailey, appointed Vice Olds, from July 24, 1893 to 1895.

Robert W. McBride, appointed vice Mitchell, from December 17, 1890 to 1892.

John D. Miller, appointed vice Berkshire, from February 25, 1891 to 1892.

Leonard J. Hackney, from 1892 to —

Timothy E. Howard, from 1892 to —

James McCabe, from 1893 to —

James H. Jordan, from 1895 to —

Leander J. Monks, from 1895 to —

JUDGES OF THE APPELLATE COURT.

George L. Reinhard, from January 1, 1893 to 1897.

Frank E. Gavin, from January 1, 1893 to 1897.

Theodore P. Davis, from January 1, 1893 to 1897.

Orlando J. Lotz, from January 1, 1893 to 1897.

George E. Ross, from January 1, 1893, to 1897.

Woodfin D. Robinson, from January 1, 1897, to —

William J. Henley, from January 1, 1897, to —

James B. Black, from January 1, 1897, to —

Daniel W. Comstock, from January 1, 1897, to —

Ulric Z. Wiley, from January 1, 1897, to —

UNITED STATES SENATORS FROM INDIANA.

James Noble, from 1816 to 1831. (Died.)

Waller Taylor, from 1816 to 1825.

William Hendricks, from 1825 to 1837.

Robert Hanna, 1831. (Appointed, vice Noble.)

John Tipton, from 1831 to 1833. (Unexpired term of Noble)

John Tipton, from 1833 to 1839.

Oliver H. Smith, from 1837 to 1843.

Albert S. White, from 1839 to 1845.

Edward A. Hannegan, from 1843 to 1849.

Vacancy from 1845 to 1846.

Jesse D. Bright, from 1846 to 1861. (Expelled in 1861.)
James Whitcomb, from 1849 to 1852. (Died.)
Charles W. Cathcart, from 1852 to 1853. (Appointed, vice Whitcomb.)
John Pettit, from 1853 to 1855. (Unexpired term of Whitcomb.)
Vacancy from 1855 to 1857.
Graham N. Fitch, from 1857 to 1861.
Joseph A. Wright (appointed), vice Bright, expelled, 1861 to 1863.
Henry S. Lane, from 1861 to 1867.
David Turpie, from 1863. (Unexpired term of Bright.)
Thomas A. Hendricks, from 1863 to 1869.
Oliver P. Morton, from 1867 to 1877. (Died.)
Daniel D. Pratt, from 1869 to 1875.
Joseph E. McDonald, from 1875 to 1881.
Daniel W. Voorhees (appointed vice Morton), from 1877 to 1879.
Daniel W. Voorhees, from 1879 to 1897.
Benjamin Harrison, from 1881 to 1887.
David Turpie, from 1887 to —
Charles W. Fairbanks, from 1897 to —

MEMBERS OF CONGRESS FROM INDIANA.

—William Hendricks, 15th Congress—1817-19.
—William Hendricks, 16th Congress—1819-21.
—William Hendricks, 17th Congress—1821-23.
1—William Prince (died), 18th Congress—1823-25.
1—Jacob Call (to fill vacancy), 18th Congress—1823-25.
2—Jonathan Jennings, 18th Congress—1823-25.
3—John Test, 18th Congress—1823-25.
1—Ratliff Boon, 19th Congress—1825-27.
2—Jonathan Jennings, 19th Congress—1825-27.

- 3—John Test, 19th Congress—1825-27.
- 1—Thomas Blake, 20th Congress—1827-29.
- 2—Jonathan Jennings, 20th Congress—1827-29.
- 3—Oliver H. Smith, 20th Congress—1827-29.
- 1—Ratliff Boon, 21st Congress—1829-31.
- 2—Jonathan Jennings, 21st Congress—1829-31.
- 3—John Test, 21st Congress—1829-31.
- 1—Ratliff Boon, 22d Congress—1831-33.
- 2—John Carr, 22d Congress—1831-33.
- 3—Jonathan McCarty, 22d Congress—1831-33.
- 1—Ratliff Boon, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 2—John Ewing, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 3—John Carr, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 4—Amos Lane, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 5—Jonathan McCarty, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 6—George S. Kinnard, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 7—Edward A. Hannegan, 23d Congress—1833-35.
- 1—Ratliff Boon, 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 2—John W. Davis, 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 3—John Carr, 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 4—Amos Lane, 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 5—Jonathan McCarty, 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 6—George S. Kinnard (died), 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 6—William Herod (to fill vacancy), 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 7—Edward A. Hannegan, 24th Congress—1835-37.
- 1—Ratliff Boon, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 2—John Ewing, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 3—William Graham, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 4—George H. Dunn, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 5—James R. Rariden, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 6—William Herod, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 7—Albert S. White, 25th Congress—1837-39.
- 1—George H. Proffit, 26th Congress—1839-41.

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- 2—John W. Davis, 26th Congress—1839-41.
 - 3—John Carr, 26th Congress—1839-41.
 - 4—Thomas A. Smith, 26th Congress—1839-41.
 - 5—James Rariden, 26th Congress—1839-41.
 - 6—William W. Wick, 26th Congress—1839-41.
 - 7—Tilghman A. Howard, 26th Congress—1839-41.
 - 1—George H. Proffit, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 2—Richard W. Thompson, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 3—Joseph L. White, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 4—James H. Cravens, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 5—Andrew Kennedy, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 6—David Wallace, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 7—Henry S. Lane, 27th Congress—1841-43.
 - 1—Robert Dale Owen, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 2—Thomas J. Henley, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 3—Thomas Smith, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 4—Caleb B. Smith, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 5—William J. Brown, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 6—John W. Davis, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 7—Joseph A. Wright, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 8—John Pettit, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 9—Samuel C. Sample, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 10—Andrew Kennedy, 28th Congress—1843-45.
 - 1—Robert Dale Owen, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 2—Thomas J. Henley, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 3—Thomas Smith, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 4—Caleb B. Smith, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 5—William W. Wick, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 6—John W. Davis, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 7—Edward M. McGaughey, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 8—John Pettit, 29th Congress—1845-47.
 - 9—Charles W. Cathcart, 29th Congress—1845-47.

- 10—Andrew Kennedy, 29th Congress—1845-47.
- 1—Elisha Embree, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 2—Thomas J. Henley, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 3—John L. Robinson, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 4—Caleb B. Smith, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 5—William W. Wick, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 6—George W. Dunn, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 7—Richard W. Thompson, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 8—John Pettit, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 9—Charles W. Cathcart, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 10—William Rockhill, 30th Congress—1847-49.
- 1—Nathaniel Albertson, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 2—Cyrus L. Dunham, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 3—John L. Robinson, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 4—George W. Julian, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 5—William J. Brown, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 6—Willis A. Gorman, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 7—Edward W. McGaughey, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 8—Joseph E. McDonald, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 9—Graham N. Fitch, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 10—Andrew J. Harlan, 31st Congress—1849-51.
- 1—James Lockhart, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 2—Cyrus L. Dunham, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 3—John L. Robinson, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 4—Samuel W. Parker, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 5—Thomas A. Hendricks, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 6—Willis A. Gorman, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 7—John G. Davis, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 8—Daniel Mace, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 9—Graham N. Fitch, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 10—Samuel Brenton, 32d Congress—1851-53.
- 1—Smith Miller, 33d Congress—1853-55.

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- 2—William H. English, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 3—Cyrus L. Dunham, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 4—James H. Lane, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 5—Samuel W. Parker, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 6—Thomas A. Hendricks, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 7—John G. Davis, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 8—Daniel Mace, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 9—Norman Eddy, 33d Congress 1853-55.
 - 10—Ebenezer M. Chamberlain, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 11—Andrew J. Harlan, 33d Congress—1853-55.
 - 1—Smith Miller, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 2—William H. English, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 3—George G. Dunn, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 4—Will Cumback, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 5—David P. Holloway, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 6—Lucian Barbour, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 7—Harvey D. Scott, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 8—Daniel Mace, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 9—Schuyler Colfax, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 10—Samuel Brenton, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 11—John U. Pettit, 34th Congress—1855-57.
 - 1—James Lockhart (died), 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 1—William Niblack (to fill vacancy), 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 2—William H. English, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 3—James Hughes, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 4—James B. Foley, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 5—David Kilgore, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 6—James M. Gregg, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 7—John G. Davis, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 8—James Wilson—35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 9—Schuyler Colfax, 35th Congress—1857-59.

- 10—Samuel Brenton, 35th Congress—1857-59.
- 11—John U. Pettit, 35th Congress—1857-59.
 - 1—William E. Niblack, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 2—William H. English, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 3—William M. Dunn, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 4—William S. Holman, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 5—David Kilgore, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 6—Albert G. Porter, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 7—John G. Davis, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 8—James Wilson, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 9—Schuyler Colfax, 36th Congress—1859-61.
- 10—Charles Case, 36th Congress—1859-61.
- 11—John U. Pettit, 36th Congress—1859-61.
 - 1—John Laws, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 2—James A. Cravens, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 3—William M. Dunn, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 4—William S. Holman, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 5—George W. Julian, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 6—Albert G. Porter, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 7—Daniel W. Voorhees, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 8—Albert S. White, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 9—Schuyler Colfax, 37th Congress—1861-63.
- 10—William Mitchell, 37th Congress—1861-63.
- 11—John P. C. Shanks, 37th Congress—1861-63.
 - 1—John Laws, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 2—James A. Cravens, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 3—Henry W. Harrington, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 4—William S. Holman, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 5—George W. Julian, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 6—Ebenezer Dumont, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 7—Daniel W. Voorhees, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 8—Godlove S. Orth, 38th Congress—1863-65.

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- 9—Schuyler Colfax, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 10—Joseph K. Edgerton, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 11—James F. McDowell, 38th Congress—1863-65.
 - 1—William E. Niblack, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 2—Michael C. Kerr, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 3—Ralph Hill, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 4—John A. Farquhar, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 5—George W. Julian, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 6—Ebenezer Dumont, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 7—Daniel W. Voorhees (seat contested), 39th Congress—
1865-67.
 - 7—Henry D. Washburn (on contest), 39th Congress—
1865-67.
 - 8—Godlove S. Orth, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 9—Schuyler Colfax, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 10—Joseph H. Defrees, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 11—Thomas N. Stillwell, 39th Congress—1865-67.
 - 1—William E. Niblack, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 2—Michael C. Kerr, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 3—Morton C. Hunter, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 4—William S. Holman, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 5—George W. Julian, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 6—John Coburn, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 7—Henry D. Washburn, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 8—Godlove S. Orth, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 9—Schuyler Colfax, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 10—William Williams, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 11—John P. C. Shanks, 40th Congress—1867-69.
 - 1—William E. Niblack, 41st Congress—1869-71.
 - 2—Michael C. Kerr, 41st Congress—1869-71.
 - 3—William S. Holman, 41st Congress—1869-71.
 - 4—George W. Julian, 41st Congress—1869-71.

- 5—John Coburn, 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 6—Daniel W. Voorhees, 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 7—Godlove S. Orth, 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 8—Daniel D. Pratt (elected to Senate), 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 8—James N. Tyner (vice Pratt), 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 9—John P. C. Shanks, 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 10—William Williams, 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 11—Jasper Packard, 41st Congress—1869-71.
- 1—William E. Niblack, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 2—Michael C. Kerr, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 3—William S. Holman, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 4—Jeremiah M. Wilson, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 5—John Coburn, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 6—Daniel W. Voorhees, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 7—Mahlon D. Manson, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 8—James N. Tyner, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 9—John P. C. Shanks, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 10—William Williams, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- 11—Jasper Packard, 42d Congress—1871-73.
- Godlove S. Orth, State, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- William Williams, State, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 1—William E. Niblack, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 2—Simeon K. Wolf, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 3—William S. Holman, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 4—Jeremiah M. Wilson, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 5—John Coburn, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 6—Morton C. Hunter, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 7—Thomas J. Cason, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 8—James N. Tyner, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 9—John P. C. Shanks, 43d Congress—1873-75.
- 10—Henry B. Saylor, 43d Congress—1873-75.

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- 11—Jasper Packard, 43d Congress—1873-75.
 - 1—Benoni S. Fuller, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 2—James D. Williams (resigned), 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 2—Andrew Humphreys (vice Williams), 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 3—Michael C. Kerr (died), 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 3—Nathan T. Carr (to fill vacancy), 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 4—Jeptha D. New, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 5—William S. Holman, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 6—Milton S. Robinson, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 7—Franklin Landers, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 8—Morton C. Hunter, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 9—Thomas J. Cason, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 10—William S. Haymond, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 11—James L. Evans, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 12—Andrew H. Hamilton, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 13—John H. Baker, 44th Congress—1875-77.
 - 1—Benoni S. Fuller, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 2—Thomas R. Cobb, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 3—George A. Bicknell, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 4—Leonidas Sexton, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 5—Thomas M. Browne, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 6—Milton S. Robinson, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 7—John Hanna, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 8—Morton C. Hunter, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 9—Michael D. White, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 10—William H. Calkins, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 11—James L. Evans, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 12—Andrew H. Hamilton, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 13—John H. Baker, 45th Congress—1877-79.
 - 1—William Heilman, 46th Congress—1879-81.
 - 2—Thomas R. Cobb, 46th Congress—1879-81.

- 3—George A. Bicknell, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 4—Jephtha D. New, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 5—Thomas M. Browne, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 6—William R. Myers, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 7—Gilbert De la Matyr, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 8—Andrew J. Hostetler, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 9—Godlove S. Orth, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 10—William H. Calkins, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 11—Calvin Cowgill, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 12—Walpole G. Colerick, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 13—John H. Baker, 46th Congress—1879-81.
- 1—William Heilman, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 2—Thomas R. Cobb, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 3—Strother M. Stockslager, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 4—William S. Holman, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 5—Courtland C. Matson, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 6—Thomas M. Browne, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 7—Stanton J. Peelle, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 8—Robert B. F. Peirce, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 9—Godlove S. Orth (died), 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 9—Charles T. Doxey (to vacancy), 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 10—Mark L. Demotte, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 11—George W. Steele, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 12—Walpole G. Colerick, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 13—William H. Calkins, 47th Congress—1881-83.
- 1—John J. Kleiner, 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 2—Thomas R. Cobb, 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 3—Strother M. Stockslager, 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 4—William S. Holman, 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 5—Courtland C. Matson, 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 6—Thomas M. Browne, 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 7—Stanton J. Peelle (contested), 48th Congress—1883-85.

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- 7—William E. English (on contest), 48th Congress—1883-85.
8—John E. Lamb, 48th Congress—1883-85.
9—Thomas B. Ward, 48th Congress—1883-85.
10—Thomas J. Wood, 48th Congress—1883-85.
11—George W. Steele, 48th Congress—1883-85.
12—Robert Lowry, 48th Congress—1883-85.
13—William H. Calkins (resigned), 48th Congress—1883-85.
13—Benjamin F. Shively (to vacancy), 48th Congress—1883-85.
- 1—John J. Kleiner, 49th Congress—1885-87.
2—Thomas R. Cobb, 49th Congress—1885-87.
3—Jonas G. Howard, 49th Congress—1885-87.
4—William S. Holman, 49th Congress—1885-87.
5—Courtland C. Matson, 49th Congress—1885-87.
6—Thomas M. Browne, 49th Congress—1885-87.
7—William D. Bynum, 49th Congress—1885-87.
8—James T. Johnson, 49th Congress—1885-87.
9—Thomas B. Ward, 49th Congress—1885-87.
10—William D. Owen, 49th Congress—1885-87.
11—George W. Steele, 49th Congress—1885-87.
12—Robert Lowry, 49th Congress—1885-87.
13—George Ford, 49th Congress—1885-87.
- 1—Alvin P. Hovey (resigned), 50th Congress—1887-89.
1—Frank Posey (to vacancy), 50th Congress—1887-89.
2—John H. O'Neil, 50th Congress—1887-89.
3—Jonas G. Howard, 50th Congress—1887-89.
4—William S. Holman, 50th Congress—1887-89.
5—Courtland C. Matson, 50th Congress—1887-89.
6—Thomas M. Browne, 50th Congress—1887-89.
7—William D. Bynum, 50th Congress—1887-89.
8—James T. Johnson, 50th Congress—1887-89.

- 9—Joseph B. Cheadle, 50th Congress—1887-89.
- 10—William D. Owen, 50th Congress—1887-89.
- 11—George W. Steele, 50th Congress—1887-89.
- 12—James D. White, 50th Congress—1887-89.
- 13—Benjamin F. Shively, 50th Congress—1887-89.
- 1—William F. Parrett, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 2—John H. O'Neil, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 3—Jason B. Brown, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 4—William S. Holman, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 5—George W. Cooper, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 6—Thomas M. Browne, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 7—William D. Bynum, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 8—Elijah V. Brookshire, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 9—Joseph B. Cheadle, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 10—William D. Owen, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 11—Augustus N. Martin, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 12—Charles A. O. McClellan, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 13—Benjamin F. Shively, 51st Congress—1889-91.
- 1—William F. Parrett, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 2—John L. Bretz, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 3—Jason B. Brown, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 4—William S. Holman, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 5—George W. Cooper, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 6—Henry U. Johnson, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 7—William D. Bynum, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 8—Elijah V. Brookshire, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 9—Daniel Waugh, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 10—David H. Patton, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 11—Augustus N. Martin, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 12—Charles A. O. McClellan, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 13—Benjamin F. Shively, 52d Congress—1891-93.
- 1—Arthur H. Taylor, 53d Congress—1893-95.

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- 2—John L. Bretz, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 3—Jason B. Brown, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 4—William S. Holman, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 5—George W. Cooper, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 6—Henry U. Johnson, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 7—William D. Bynum, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 8—Elijah V. Brookshire, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 9—Daniel Waugh, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 10—Thomas Hammond, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 11—Augustus N. Martin, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 12—William F. McNagny, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 13—Charles G. Conn, 53d Congress—1893-95.
 - 1—James A. Hemenway, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 2—Alexander M. Hardy, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 3—Robert J. Tracewell, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 4—James E. Watson, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 5—Jesse Overstreet, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 6—Henry U. Johnson, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 7—Charles L. Henry, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 8—George W. Faris, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 9—J. Frank Hanley, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 10—Jethro A. Hatch, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 11—George W. Steele, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 12—Jacob D. Leighty, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 13—Lemuel W. Royse, 54th Congress—1895-97.
 - 1—James A. Hemenway, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 2—Robert W. Miers, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 3—William T. Zenor, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 4—William S. Holman (died), 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 4—Francis Griffin (to fill vacancy), 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 5—George W. Faris, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 6—Henry U. Johnson, 55th Congress—1897-99.

- 7—Jesse Overstreet, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 8—Charles L. Henry, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 9—Charles B. Landis, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 10—Edgar D. Crumpacker, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 11—George W. Steele, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 12—James N. Robinson, 55th Congress—1897-99.
 - 13—Lemuel W. Royse, 55th Congress—1897-99.
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**GENERAL OFFICERS APPOINTED FROM INDIANA
1861 to 1862.**

MAJOR GENERALS.

- Wallace, Lewis, Crawfordsville, commissioned March 21, 1862; resigned, November 30, 1865.
- Milroy, Robert H., Delphi, commissioned November 29, 1862; resigned, July 26, 1865.
- Reynolds, Joseph J., Lafayette, commissioned November 29, 1862; Colonel in regular army, and brevet Major General.

BRIGADIER GENERALS.

- Morris, Thomas A., Indianapolis, commissioned April 27, 1861; 3 months service.
- Reynolds, Joseph J., Lafayette, commissioned May 10, 1861; resigned January 23, 1862; appointed Major General.
- Dumont, Ebenezer, Indianapolis, commissioned September 3, 1861; resigned February 28, 1862.
- Milroy, Robert H., Delphi, commissioned September 3, 1861; promoted Major General, November 29, 1862.
- Wallace, Lewis, Crawfordsville, commissioned September 3, 1861; promoted-Major General, March 21, 1862.

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- Davis, Jeff C.,** regular army, commissioned December 18, 1861; Brevet Major General, January 23, 1865.
- Manson, Mahlon D.,** Crawfordsville, commissioned March 24, 1862; resigned, December 21, 1864.
- Kimball, Nathan,** Loogootee, commissioned April 15, 1862, Brevet Major General.
- Hascall, Milo S.,** Goshen, commissioned April 25, 1862; resigned, October 27, 1864.
- Hackleman, P. A.,** Rushville, commissioned April 28, 1862; killed, October 3, 1862.
- Crittenden, T. T.,** Madison, commissioned April 28, 1862; resigned, May 11, 1865.
- Veatch, James C.,** Rockport, commissioned April 28, 1862 Brevet Major General.
- Benton, W. P.,** Richmond, commissioned April 28, 1862; Brevet Major General.
- Hovey, Alvin P.,** Mt. Vernon, commissioned April 28, 1862; Brevet Major General.
- Cruft, Charles,** Terre Haute, commissioned July 16, 1862; Brevet Major General.
- Willich, August,** Indianapolis, commissioned July 17, 1865; Brevet Major General.
- Meredith, Solomon,** Cambridge City, commissioned October 6, 1862; Brevet Major General.
- Pitcher, Thomas G.,** Mt. Vernon, commissioned November 29, 1862; Colonel in regular army.
- Wagner, George D.,** Williamsport, commissioned November 29, 1862; mustered out, August 24, 1865.
- McMillan, James W.,** Bedford, commissioned November 29, 1862; Brevet Major General.
- Harrow, William,** Mt. Vernon, commissioned November 29, 1862; resigned; re-appointed; resigned, April 20, 1862.

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- McGinnis, George F. Indianapolis, commissioned November 29, 1862; mustered out, August 24, 1865.
- Foster, Robert S. Indianapolis, commissioned June 12, 1863; Brevet Major General.
- Gresham, Walter Q., New Albany, commissioned August 11, 1863; Brevet Major General.
- Cameron, Robert A., Valparaiso, commissioned August 11, 1863; Brevet Major General.
- Miller, John F., South Bend, commissioned January 5, 1864; Brevet Major General.
- McCook, Edward M., Indianapolis, commissioned April 27, 1864; Brevet Major General.
- Chapman, George H. Indianapolis, commissioned July 21, 1864; Brevet Major General.
- Grose, William, Newcastle, commissioned July 30, 1864; Brevet Major General.
- Slack, James R., Huntington, commissioned November 10, 1864; Brevet Major General.
- Lucas, Thomas J., Lawrenceburg, commissioned November 10, 1864; Brevet Major General.
- Catterson, Robert F., Rockville, commissioned June 6, 1865; mustered out January 15, 1866.
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POPULAR VOTE OF INDIANA FOR PRESIDENT—
FROM 1824 TO 1896, INCLUSIVE.

1824.

Adams, National Republican.....	3,095
Jackson, Democrat.....	7,343
Clay, Whig.....	5,315

1828.

Adams, National Republican.....	17,652
Jackson, Democrat.....	22,237

1832.

Clay, Whig.....	15,472
Jackson, Democrat.....	31,552

1836.

Harrison, Whig.....	41,281
Van Buren, Democrat.....	32,480

1840.

Harrison, Whig.....	65,362
Van Buren, Democrat.....	51,695

1844.

Clay, Whig.....	67,867
Polk, Democrat.....	70,181
Birney, Abolitionist.....	3,106

1848.

Taylor, Whig.....	69,907
Cass, Democrat.....	74,745
Van Buren, Free Soil Democrat.....	8,109

1852.

Scott, Whig.....	80,901
Pierce, Democrat.....	95,340
Hale, Abolitionist.....	6,929

1856.

Fremont, Republican.....	91,375
Buchanan, Democrat.....	118,670
Fillmore, American.....	22,386

1860.

Lincoln, Republican.....	139,033
Douglas, Democrat.....	115,509
Breckenridge, Democrat.....	12,295
Bell, Constitutional Union.....	5,306

1864.

Lincoln, Republican.....	150,422
McClellan, Democrat.....	130,233

1868.

Grant, Republican.....	176,548
Seymour, Democrat.....	166,980

1872.

Grant, Republican.....	186,147
Greeley, Liberal Republican and Democrat.....	163,632

1876.

Tilden, Democrat.....	213,526
Hayes, Republican.....	208,011

1880.

Garfield, Republican.....	232,164
Hancock, Democrat.....	225,522
Weaver, Greenback.....	12,986

1884.

Cleveland, Democrat.....	244,990
Blaine, Republican.....	238,463
Butler, Labor.....	8,293
St. John, Prohibitionist.....	3,028

1888.

Harrison, Republican.....	263,361
Cleveland, Democrat.....	261,013
Fisk, Prohibitionist	9,881
Streeter, Labor.....	2,694

1892.

Cleveland, Democrat.....	262,740
Harrison, Republican.....	255,615
Weaver, Populist.....	22,208
Bidwell, Prohibitionist.....	13,050

1896.

McKinley, Republican.....	323,754
Bryan, Democrat.....	305,573
Palmer, Gold Democrat.....	2,145
Scattering.....	5,647

No record can be found of the vote of 1820.

The scattering vote of 1896 was divided between two Prohibition candidates and the Social Labor candidate.

TABLE SHOWING THE GROWTH OF POPULATION BY COUNTIES.

The name of Indiana does not appear in the census report for 1790. The second United States census was taken in 1800, and gives the population of Indiana Territory ; but only one of the seven counties enumerated remained in Indiana—Knox. The population of that county was given as 2,517. The third census, that of 1810, gave Indiana a population in four counties as follows Clark, 5,670 ; Dearborn, 7,310 ; Harrison, 8,595 ; Knox, 7,945. Total, 24,520. The population for the other years is shown by the following table :

COUNTIES.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Adams.....			2,264	5,797	9,252	11,882	15,385	20,181
Allen.....		996	5,942	16,919	29,328	43,494	54,763	66,699
Bartholomew.....		5,476	10,042	12,428	17,863	21,136	22,777	23,867
Benton.....				1,144	2,800	5,615	11,108	11,903
Blackford.....			1,226	2,860	4,123	6,273	8,020	10,461
Boone.....		621	8,121	11,631	16,753	22,593	25,923	26,573
Brown.....			2,364	4,846	6,507	8,681	10,264	10,309
Carroll.....		1,611	7,819	11,015	13,489	16,152	18,345	20,031
Cass.....		1,162	5,480	11,021	16,843	24,193	27,611	31,153
Clark.....	8,709	10,686	14,595	15,828	20,502	24,770	28,610	30,253
Clay.....		1,616	5,567	7,944	12,161	19,034	25,854	30,536
Clinton.....		1,423	7,508	11,869	14,505	17,830	23,472	27,370
Crawford.....	2,583	3,238	5,282	6,524	8,226	9,857	12,356	13,941
Daviess.....	8,432	4,543	6,720	10,352	13,323	16,747	21,553	26,327
Dearborn.....	11,468	13,974	19,327	20,166	24,406	24,116	26,671	28,364
Decatur.....		5,887	12,171	15,107	17,294	19,053	19,779	19,277
Dekalb.....			1,968	8,257	13,880	17,167	20,225	24,307
Delaware.....	3,617	2,374	8,843	10,843	15,753	19,030	22,926	30,131
Dubois.....	1,168	1,778	3,632	6,321	10,394	12,597	15,992	20,253
Elkhart.....		935	6,660	12,690	20,986	26,026	33,454	39,201
Fayette.....	5,950	9,112	9,837	10,217	10,225	10,476	11,394	12,630
Floyd.....	2,776	6,361	9,454	14,875	20,183	23,300	24,590	29,453
Fountain.....		7,019	11,218	13,253	15,566	16,389	20,228	19,558
Franklin.....	10,763	10,190	13,349	17,968	19,349	20,223	20,092	18,366
Fulton.....			1,993	5,983	9,423	12,726	14,301	16,746
Gibson.....	3,876	5,418	8,977	10,771	14,533	17,371	22,742	24,920
Grant.....			4,875	11,092	15,797	18,487	23,618	31,493
Greene.....		4,242	8,321	12,313	16,041	19,514	22,996	24,379
Hamilton.....		1,757	9,855	12,684	17,300	20,882	24,801	26,123
Hancock.....		1,436	7,335	9,698	12,802	15,123	17,123	17,829
Harrison.....	7,875	10,273	12,459	15,286	18,521	19,913	21,326	20,786
Hendricks.....		3,975	11,264	14,083	16,953	20,277	22,981	21,498
Henry.....		6,497	15,128	17,605	20,119	22,986	24,016	23,879
Howard.....				6,657	12,524	15,847	19,584	26,186
Huntington.....			1,579	7,850	14,867	19,036	21,805	27,644
Jackson.....	4,110	4,870	8,961	11,047	16,286	18,974	23,050	24,139
Jasper.....			1,267	3,540	4,291	6,354	9,464	11,185
Jay.....			3,863	7,047	11,399	15,000	19,282	23,478
Jefferson.....	8,038	11,465	16,614	23,916	25,036	29,741	25,977	24,507
Jennings.....	2,000	3,974	8,829	12,096	14,749	16,218	16,453	14,608
Johnson.....		4,019	9,352	12,101	14,854	18,366	19,537	19,561
Knox.....	5,437	6,525	10,657	11,084	16,056	21,562	26,321	28,044

APPENDIX.

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COUNTIES.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Kosciusko.....			4,170	10,243	17,418	23,591	26,494	28,645
Lagrange.....			3,664	8,387	11,366	14,148	15,630	15,615
Lake.....			1,468	3,991	9,145	12,339	15,091	23,886
Laporte.....			8,184	12,145	22,919	27,062	30,985	34,445
Lawrence.....	4,116	9,234	11,782	12,007	13,692	14,628	18,543	19,792
Madison.....		2,238	8,874	12,375	16,518	22,770	27,527	30,487
Marion.....		7,192	16,080	24,103	39,855	71,939	102,782	141,156
Marshall.....			1,657	5,348	12,722	20,211	23,414	23,818
Martin.....	1,032	2,019	3,875	5,941	8,975	11,103	13,475	13,973
Miami.....			3,048	11,304	16,851	21,052	24,083	25,823
Monroe.....	2,679	6,577	10,143	11,296	12,847	14,168	15,875	17,673
Montgomery.....		7,317	14,438	18,084	20,888	23,765	27,316	28,025
Morgan.....		5,593	10,741	14,576	16,110	17,528	18,900	18,643
Newton.....					2,360	5,829	8,167	8,803
Noble.....			2,702	7,946	14,915	20,389	22,956	23,359
Ohio.....					5,308	5,837	5,563	4,955
Orange.....	5,368	7,901	9,602	10,809	12,076	13,497	14,363	14,678
Owen.....	838	4,017	8,359	12,106	14,376	16,137	15,901	15,040
Parke.....		7,535	13,499	14,968	15,538	18,166	19,460	20,296
Perry.....	2,330	3,369	4,655	7,268	11,847	14,801	16,997	18,240
Pike.....	1,472	2,475	4,769	7,720	20,078	13,779	16,383	18,544
Porter.....			2,162	5,234	10,313	13,942	17,227	18,052
Posey.....	4,001	6,549	9,683	12,549	16,167	19,185	20,857	21,529
Pulaski.....			561	2,595	5,711	7,801	9,851	11,233
Putnam.....		8,262	16,843	18,615	20,681	21,514	22,501	22,335
Randolph.....	1,808	3,912	10,684	14,725	18,997	22,862	26,435	28,085
Ripley.....	1,822	3,989	10,392	14,820	19,054	20,977	21,627	19,350
Rush.....		9,707	16,456	16,445	16,193	17,623	19,238	19,094
St. Joseph.....		287	6,425	10,954	18,455	25,322	33,178	42,457
Scott.....	2,334	3,092	4,242	5,885	7,303	7,873	8,343	7,833
Shelby.....		6,295	12,005	15,502	19,569	21,892	25,257	25,454
Spencer.....	1,882	3,196	6,305	8,616	14,556	17,998	22,122	22,060
Starke.....			149	557	2,195	3,888	5,105	7,339
Steuben.....			2,578	6,104	10,374	12,854	14,645	14,478
Sullivan.....	3,498	4,630	8,315	10,141	15,064	18,453	20,336	21,887
Switzerland.....	3,934	7,028	9,920	12,932	12,098	12,134	13,336	12,514
Tippecanoe.....		7,187	13,724	19,377	25,726	33,515	35,966	35,078
Tipton.....				3,532	8,170	11,953	14,407	18,157
Union.....		7,914	8,017	6,944	7,109	6,341	7,673	7,006
Vanderburgh.....	1,798	2,611	6,250	11,414	20,552	33,145	42,193	50,809
Vermillion.....		5,692	8,274	8,661	9,422	10,840	12,025	13,154
Vigo.....	3,390	5,766	12,076	15,289	22,517	33,549	45,658	50,195
Wabash.....	147		2,756	12,138	17,547	21,305	25,241	27,126
Warren.....		2,861	5,656	7,387	10,057	10,204	11,497	10,955
Warrick.....	1,749	2,877	6,321	8,811	13,261	17,653	20,162	21,161
Washington.....	9,039	13,064	15,269	17,040	17,909	18,495	18,955	18,619
Wayne.....	12,119	18,571	23,299	25,320	29,558	34,048	38,613	37,628
Wells.....			1,822	6,152	10,844	13,585	18,442	21,514
White.....			1,832	4,761	8,258	10,554	13,795	15,671
Whitley.....			1,237	5,190	10,730	14,399	16,941	17,768
Total.....	147,178	343,031	685,866	988,416	1,350,428	1,680,637	1,978,637	2,192,404

**BATTLES AND ENGAGEMENTS IN WHICH INDIANA
TROOPS PARTICIPATED FROM 1861 TO 1865.**

Aberdeen, Arkansas, July 9, 1862—34th Regiment.

Adairsville, Georgia, May 17-18, 1864—86th and 101st Regiments and 5th Battery.

Alleghany, Virginia, December 13, 1861—9th and 13th Regiments; 26th Battery.

Anderson Turnout, Virginia, August, 1862—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Antietam, Maryland, September 17, 1862—7th, 14th, 19th, 27th, right wing 45th (cavalry), Regiments; 16th Battery.

Appomattox C. H., Virginia, April 7-8, 1865—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Arkansas Post, Arkansas, January 11th, 1863—16th, 46th, 49th, 54th, 60th, 67th, 69th, and 83d Regiments.

Ashby's Gap, Virginia, November 2, 1863—7th Regiment.

Atchafalaya, Louisiana, July 28th, 1864—8th and 47th Regiments.

Athens, Alabama, October 1-2, 1864—73d Regiment.

Atlanta, Georgia (siege), July 21st to Sept 2, 1864—6th, 9th, 10th, 12th, 22d, 23d, 25th, 27th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 33d, 35th, 37th, 38th, 40th, 42d, 53d, 57th, 63d, 65th, 66th, 70th, 74th, 75th, 79th, 80th, 81st, 82d, 83d, 84th, 85th, 86th, 87th, 88th, 91st, 97th, 99th, 100th, 101st, 120th, 123d, 124th, 128th, 129th, and 130th Regiments; 5th 7th, 11th, 15th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 22d, and 23d Batteries.

Austin, Mississippi, August 2, 1862—8th Regiment.

Averysboro, North Carolina, March 16, 1865—22d, 33d, 38th, 39th (cavalry), 42d and 85th Regiments.

- Bald Knob, Georgia, May, 1864—81st Regiment.
- Ball's Bluff, Virginia, October 21-22, 1861, 16th Regiment.
- Barber's Cross Roads, Virginia, November 4, 1863—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Baton Rouge, Louisiana, August 5, 1862—21st Regiment (heavy artillery).
- Baton Rouge, Louisiana (siege), January, 1864—18th Regiment.
- Bayou De Glaise, Louisiana, May 18, 1864—89th Regiment.
- Bean Station, Tennessee, December 14, 1863—65th, 90th (cavalry), and 117th Regiments; 24th Battery.
- Beaver Creek Ford, Maryland, July 9, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Belle Plain Road, Georgia, June, 1864—17th Regiment.
- Bentonville, North Carolina, March 19, 1865—12th, 22d, 23d, 25th, 33d, 38th, 39th (cavalry), 42d, 48th, 53d, 75th, 82d, 83d, 85th, 88th, 97th, 99th, and 100th Regiments; 19th Battery.
- Bethesda Church, Virginia, May 30-31, 1864—7th Regiment.
- Beverly Ford, Virginia, July 9, 1863—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Big Shanty, Georgia, June 14, 1864—7th, 22d, 97th, and 99th Regiments.
- Black River Bridge, Mississippi, May 17, 1863—8th, 16th, 18th, 49th, 54th, 60th, 67th, and 69th Regiments; 1st and 6th Batteries.
- Blount's Farm, Alabama, May 2, 1863—51st and 73d Regiments.
- Blountsville, Tennessee, September 22, 1863—65th and 90th Regiments (cavalry).
- Blue Springs, Tennessee, October 10th, 1863—115th and 116th Regiments.

Boonsboro, Maryland, July 8, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Brandy Station, Virginia, August 22-24—16th Battery Light Artillery and right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Bristow Station, Virginia, October 14, 1863—14th Regiment.

Brown's Ferry, Tennessee, October 27, 1863—6th Regiment.

Brownsville, Mississippi, September 17, 1863—93d Regiment.

Buffalo Mountain, Indian Territory, October 25th, 1863—2d Battery.

Buffington Island, Ohio River, July 19, 1863—90th Regiment (cavalry).

Buzzard Roost, Georgia, May 8, 1864—6th, 9th, 82d, and 88th Regiments.

Camden, Arkansas, April 17, 1864—43d and 50th Regiments; 2d Battery.

Campbell's Station, Tennessee, November 16, 1863—15th and 24th Batteries.

Camp Sterling, Louisiana, September 29, 1863—26th Regiment.

Cane Hill, Arkansas, November 27, 1862—2d Battery.

Cane Run, Louisiana, May, 1864—3d and 9th Batteries.

Carrick's Ford, Virginia, July 12, 1861—6th, 7th and 9th Regiments.

Carrion Crow Bayou, Louisiana, November 3, 1864—34th and 60th Regiments.

Cassville, Georgia, May 19, 1864—9th, 33d, 70th, 71st (cavalry), 85th, 87th and 101st Regiments; 5th, 18th and 19th Batteries.

Cedar Mountain, Virginia, August 9, 1862—7th and 27th Regiments; 16th Battery.

Cedar Creek, Virginia, October 19, 1864—8th, 11th, 18th, right wing, 45th (cavalry), Regiments; 17th Battery.

Champion Hills, Mississippi, May 16, 1863—8th, 11th, 12th, 18th, 23d, 24th, 34th, 46th, 47th, 48th, 49th, 59th, 60th, 67th, 69th and 83d Regiments; 1st Battery.

Chancellorsville, Virginia, May 2-3, 1863—7th, 14th, 20th and 27th Regiments.

Chantilly, Virginia, September 1, 1862—20th Regiment.

Chapin's Bluff, Virginia—13th and 20th Regiments.

Charlestown, Virginia, October 18, 1863—17th Battery.

Chattahoochie River, Georgia, July 7, 1864—17th, 22d, 33d, 37th, 40th, 74th, 86th and 100th Regiments.

Cheat Mountain, Virginia, September 12-13, 1861—13th and 14th Regiments.

Chester Gap, Virginia, July 22, 1863—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Chester Station, Virginia, May 10, 1864—13th Regiment.

Chicamacomico, North Carolina, October 4, 1861—20th Regiment.

Chickamauga, Georgia, September 19-20, 1863—6th, 9th, 10th, 17th, 29th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 35th, 36th, 37th, 38th, 39th (cavalry), 40th, 42d, 44th, left wing, 45th (cavalry), 58th, 68th, 72d (cavalry), 74th, 75th, 77th (cavalry), 79th, 81st, 82d, 84th, 86th, 87th, 88th and 101st Regiments; 4th, 5th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 18th, 19th and 21st Batteries.

Chickasaw Bayou, Mississippi, December 27-31, 1862—16th, 49th, 44th, 69th and 83d Regiments.

Clinch Valley, Tennessee, January, 1864—79th Regiment.

Clover Hill, Virginia, April 9, 1865, 20th Regiment.

Cold Harbor, Virginia, June 3, 1864—7th, 13th, 14th, 19th and 20th Regiments.

Collierville, Tennessee, October 11, 1863—Detachment of 16th Regiment.

Columbia, Tennessee, November 26th, 1864—9th, 33d, 65th,

77th (cavalry), 128th and 129th Regiments; 15th, 21st, 22d, 23d and 24th Batteries.

Concord. Tennessee, November 16, 1863—15th and 24th Batteries.

Coosaville, Georgia, October —, 1863—17th Regiment.

Corinth, Mississippi (siege), April 11 to May 30, 1862—6th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 15th, 17th, 22d, 23d, 24th, 25th, 29th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 36th, 41st (cavalry), 44th, left wing, 45th (cavalry), 48th, 51st, 52d, 53d, 57th, 58th and 59th Regiments; 4th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th and 14th Batteries.

Corinth, Mississippi (defense), October 3-4, 1862—48th, and 59th Regiments.

Cornet Bridge, Louisiana, December —, 1862—21st Regiment (heavy artillery).

Corydon, Indiana, Morgan Raid, July 9, 1863—6th Regiment Indiana Legion.

Cotton Gap, Arkansas, September 1, 1863—2d Battery.

Cotton Plant, Arkansas, July 7, 1862—8th and 18th Regiments.

Coucherville, Louisiana, May —, 1864—3d and 9th Batteries.

Courtland, Tennessee, December, 1864—125th Regiment (cavalry).

Craig's Meeting House, Virginia, May 5, 1864—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Crooked Creek, Alabama, April 30, 1863—51st and 73d Regiments.

Cross Keys, Virginia, June 8, 1862—26th Battery.

Culp's Farm, Georgia, June 22, 1864—33d and 85th Regiments.

Cumberland Gap, Kentucky, June 18, 1862—33d and 49th Regiments.

Dallas, Georgia, May 27, 1864—6th, 9th, 10th, 12th, 22d, 30th, 32d, 35th, 37th, 40th, 63d, 65th, 66th, 74th, 75th, 79th, 81st, 82d, 83d, 84th, 85th, 88th, 97th, 99th, 100th, 101st, 128th and 129th Regiments.

Dalton, Georgia, August 15, 1864—68th Regiment.

Danbridge, Tennessee, January 17, 1864—90th Regiment (cavalry); 18th and 24th Batteries.

Davis' Mills, Mississippi, December 21, 1862—Detachment of 25th Regiment.

Day's Gap, Alabama, April 30, 1863—51st and 73d Regiments.

Decatur, Alabama, October 26-30, 1864—68th, 73d, and detachment 125th (cavalry), Regiments.

Decatur, Georgia, July 19, 1864—91st, 99th, 100th, 123d, 124th, 129th and 130th Regiments.

Deep Bottom, Virginia, September 18, 1864—13th and 20th Regiments.

Des Allemands, Louisiana, September 8, 1862—21st Regiment (heavy artillery).

Deserted Farm, Virginia, January 30, 1863—13th Regiment.

Dobbin's Ford, Tennessee, December 9, 1862—35th Regiment.

Dug Gap, Georgia, September 11, 1862—37th, 74th and 88th Regiments; 4th Battery.

Duval's Bluff, Arkansas, June 10, 1863—46th Regiment.

Ebenezer Church, Alabama, April 1, 1865—17th, 72d (cavalry) and 77th Regiments; 18th Battery.

Edgefield Junction, Tennessee, August 20, 1862—Detachment of 50th Regiment.

Egypt Station, Mississippi, February —, 1864—119th Regiment (cavalry).

Elkwater, Virginia, September 12-13, 1861—13th, 15th and 17th Regiments; 26th Battery.

Fair Garden, Tennessee, February 19, 1865—41st (cavalry) and 77th (cavalry) Regiments; 18th Battery.

Fair Oaks, Virginia, May 31, to June 1, 1862—20th Regiment.

Falling Waters, Virginia, July 14, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Farmington, Tennessee, October 7, 1863—17th Regiment; 18th Battery.

Fisher's Hill, Virginia, September 22, 1864—8th, 11th and 18th Regiments; 17th Battery.

Fitzhugh's Crossing, Virginia, April 29, 1863—19th Regiment.

Five Forks, Virginia, April 2, 1865—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Flat Rock, Georgia, October —, 1862—17th Regiment.

Flint River, Tennessee, December —, 1864—125th Regiment (cavalry).

Fort Anderson, North Carolina, February 19, 1865—13th, 63d, 65th, 80th, 91st and 140th Regiments; 15th Battery.

Fort Blakely, Alabama, April 9, 1865—24th, 52d, 69th, 93d, 125th (cavalry), 127th (cavalry), and 131st (cavalry) Regiments; 3d Battery.

Fort De Russy, Louisiana, March 14th, 1864—52d and 89th Regiments; 1st, 3d and 9th Batteries.

Fort Donelson, Tennessee, February 13-16, 1862—11th, 25th, 31st, 44th and 52d Regiments.

Fort Esparanza, Texas, November 27, 1863—8th and 18th Regiments.

Fort Fisher, North Carolina, January 14-15, 1865—13th, 63d, 65th, 80th, 91st and 140th Regiments; 15th Battery.

Fort Gaines, Alabama, August 5-8, 1864—21st (heavy artillery) and 67th Regiments.

Fort Gilmore, North Carolina, September 20, 1864—13th and 20th Regiments.

Fort Henry, Tennessee, February 7, 1862—23d Regiment.

Fort McAllister, Georgia, December 13, 1864—83d and 99th Regiments; 19th Battery.

Fort Morgan, Alabama, August 5-13, 1864—21st (heavy artillery) and 67th Regiments.

Fort Pillow, Tennessee, June 5, 1862—43d and 46th Regiments.

Fort Smith, Arkansas, July 29-31, 1864—2d Battery.

Fort Wagner, South Carolina, September 7, 1864—13th Regiment.

Fort Wayne, Arkansas, October 28, 1862—2d Battery.

Foster's Farm, Virginia, May 20, 1864—13th Regiment.

Franklin, Tennessee, November 30, 1864—9th, 13th, 31st, 35th, 40th, detachment 39th (cavalry), 57th, 63d, 65th, 79th, 80th, 81st, 84th, 86th, 91st, 120th, 121st (cavalry), 124th, 126th (cavalry), 128th and 129th Regiments; 15th, 18th, 22d and 23d Batteries.

Franklin, Missouri, October 1, 1864—52d Regiment.

Fredericktown, Missouri, October —, 1861—28th Regiment (cavalry).

Fredericksburg, Virginia, December 11, 1862—7th, 14th, 19th and 20th Regiments.

Front Royal, Virginia, May 23, 1862—27th Infantry; June 12, 1862, 7th Regiment.

Funkstown, Maryland, July 10, 1863—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Gains' Mill, Virginia, June 27, 1862—20th Regiment.

Gainesville, Virginia, August 28, 1862—19th Regiment.

Gallatin, Tennessee, August 21-27, 1862—41st Regiment (cavalry).

Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, July 1-3, 1863—7th, 14th, 19th, 20th and 27th, right wing, 45th (cavalry), Regiments.

Glendale, Virginia, June 28, 1862—20th Regiment.

Golgotha Church, Georgia, June 15, 1864—33d and 85th Regiments.

Goshen, Georgia, October —, 1864—17th Regiment.

Grand Coteau, Louisiana, November 3, 1863—46th, 47th, 60th and 67th Regiments.

Graysville, Georgia, November 27, 1862—38th, 97th and 100th Regiments.

Greenbrier, Virginia, October 3, 1861—7th, 9th, 13th, 14th, 15th and 17th Regiments.

Griswoldville, Georgia, November 23, 1864—12th Regiment.

Guntown, Mississippi, June 10, 1864—93d and 119th (cavalry) Regiments; 6th and 14th Batteries.

Halltown, Virginia, August 24, 1864—17th Battery.

Hanover Court House, Virginia, May 30-31, 1864—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Harper's Ferry, Virginia, September 13-15, 1862—15th and 26th Batteries; July 6, 1863—17th Battery.

Hartwell, Tennessee, December 7, 1862—13th Battery.

Hatchie River, Mississippi, October 5, 1862—25th and 53d Regiments.

Hatcher's Run, Virginia, April 2, 1865—20th Regiment and 28th U. S. colored Regiment.

Helena, Arkansas, July 4, 1863—43d Regiment.

Henderson's Mill, Tennessee, October 11, 1863—90th Regiment (cavalry).

Henderson's Hill, Louisiana, November 21, 1864—18th Regiment; 9th Battery.

Hillsboro, Georgia, July 31, 1864—Detachment 90th Regiment (cavalry).

Hoover's Gap, Tennessee—17th, 68th, 72d (cavalry), 74th, 76th, 82d, 87th, 88th and 101st Regiments; 4th, 18th, 19th and 21st Batteries.

Huntsville, Alabama, October 1, 1864—Detachment 127th (cavalry), detachment 131st (cavalry) Regiments.

Hurricane Creek, Mississippi, August 13, 1864—52d Regiment.

Hurst's Station, Georgia, June —, 1864—5th Battery.

Island No. 10, Mississippi River, March 10 to April 7, 1862—34th, 43d, 46th, 47th, 59th, 54th, 60th, 67th, 69th, 83d, 93d, 97th, 99th and 100th Regiments; 1st and 6th Batteries.

Jonesboro, Georgia, September 1, 1864—9th, 12th, 22d, 23d, 25th, 38th, 39th (cavalry), 42d, left wing, 45th (cavalry), 57th, 66th, 74th, 75th, 79th, 81st, 82d, 83d, 84th, 86th, 87th, 97th, 99th, 100th, 101st, 120th, 128th and 130th Regiments.

Jonesboro, Georgia, — 5th, 15th, 19th and 20th Batteries.

Kelly's Island, Virginia, July 26th, 1861—11th Regiment.

Kenesaw Mountain, Georgia, June 27, 1864—6th, 9th, 10th, 12th, 17th, 22d, 23d, 27th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 33d, 35th, 36th, 37th, 38th, 40th, 42d, 53d, 57th, 63d, 65th, 66th, 70th, 71st (cavalry), 74th, 75th, 79th, 80th, 81st, 82d, 83d, 84th, 85th, 86th, 87th, 88th, 91st, 99th, 100th, 101st, 120th, 123d, 124th, 128th, 129th and 130th Regiments; 5th, 7th, 11th, 15th, 19th, 22d, 23d and 24th Batteries.

Kingston, Georgia, June —, 1864—82d, 84th and 86th Regiments; 5th Battery.

Kingston, Tennessee, November 7, 1863—18th Regiment; 15th Battery.

Kirksville, Missouri, August, 1862—3d Battery.

Knoxville, Tennessee, November 17 to December 4, 1863—

71st (cavalry) Regiment; 15th, 23d 24th and 26th Batteries.

Lafourche Crossing, Louisiana, June 21, 1863—Detachment 21st Regiment (heavy artillery).

La Mavoo, Mississippi, August 18, 1864—Detachment 119th Regiment (cavalry).

Laurel Hill, Virginia, May 8, 1864—7th, 9th and 19th Regiments.

Lavergne, Tennessee, December 27, 1862—58th Regiment.

Leesburgh, Georgia, August —, 1864—17th Regiment.

Lewinsville, Virginia, September 11, 1864—19th Regiment.

Lexington, Tennessee, December 18, 1862—Detachment 14th Battery.

Liberty Gap, Tennessee, June 26, 1863—22d, 29th, 30th, 32d, 39th (cavalry) and 81st Regiments; 5th Battery.

Little Harpeth, Tennessee, December —, 1864—125th Regiment (cavalry).

Little Ogeechee River, December 8, 1864—97th and 99th Regiments.

Little River, Georgia, October 26, 1864—97th and 99th Regiments.

Locust Grove, Virginia, November —, 1863—20th Regiment.

Lookout Mountain, Georgia, November 24, 1863—9th, 38th, 40th, 42d, 86th and 88th Regiments; 4th Battery.

Lone Jack, Missouri, September 9, 1862—2d and 3d Batteries.

Lost Mountain, Georgia, June 17, 1864—71st (cavalry). 74th, 123d, 124th, 128th and 130th Regiments; 18th Battery.

Lovejoy's Station, Georgia, September 2, 1864—9th, 39th (cavalry), 79th, 81st, 84th, 86th, 99th and 100th Regiments.

Macon, Georgia, April 20, 1865—17th, 72d (cavalry) Regiments; 18th and 24th Batteries.

- Madisonville, Kentucky, August 28, 1862—65th Regiment;
October 5, 1862—77th Regiment (cavalry).
- Malvern Hill, Virginia, July 1, 1862—20th Regiment.
- Manassas Gap, Virginia, July 23, 1863—20th Regiment.
- Marietta, Georgia, July 3, 1864—6th, 9th, 17th. 33d and 70th
Regiments.
- Mark's Mills, Arkansas, April 30, 1864—43d and 50th Reg-
iments; 2d Battery.
- Maryland Heights, Maryland, July 4, 1864—17th Battery.
- McDowell, Virginia, May 8, 1862—26th Battery.
- McMinnville, Tennessee, August 9, 1862—41st Regiment
(cavalry); August 30, 1862—8th Battery; October 4,
1863, 17th Regiment; 18th Battery.
- Meadow Bridge, Virginia, May 12, 1864—Right wing, 45th
Regiment (cavalry).
- Mill Springs, Kentucky, January 19, 1862—10th Regiment.
- Milton, Tennessee, March —, 1863—101st Regiment.
- Mine Run, Virginia, November 30 1863—7th, 14th. 19th
and 20th Regiments.
- Mission Ridge, Georgia, November 25, 1863—6th, 9th, 10th,
12th, 15th, 22d, 32d, 35th, 38th, 40th, 42d, 44th, left wing
45th (cavalry), 57th, 58th, 59th, 68th, 74th, 75th, 79th,
82d, 83d, 86th, 87th, 88th, 97th, 99th, 100th and 101st
Regiments; 4th, 7th, 8th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 19th and 21st
Batteries.
- Mobile, Alabama (siege), March 27 to April 11, 1865—21st
(heavy artillery), 24th, 26th, 47th, 50th, 52d, 67th, 69th,
89th, 93d, 125th (cavalry), 127th (cavalry), 131st (cav-
alry) Regiments; 1st, 3d and 14th Batteries.
- Moore's Hill, Missouri, August —, 1862—3d Battery.
- Moore's Plantation, Louisiana, May 7, 1864—52d and 89th
Regiments; 1st, 3d and 9th Batteries.

Mooreville, Alabama, November 30, 1863—72d (cavalry) Regiment.

Monterey, Kentucky, March —, 1862—13th Battery.

Morrisville, North Carolina. April —, 1865—39th Regiment (cavalry).

Morton's Ford, Virginia, February 10, 1864—14th Regiment.

Mossy Creek, Tennessee, January 12, 1864—77th (cavalry), 79th, 80th, 90th (cavalry), Regiments; 18th and 24th Batteries.

Mount Hope, Tennessee, December —, 1864—125th Regiment (cavalry).

Muldraugh's Hill, Kentucky, August 28, 1862—71st Regiment (cavalry).

Munfordsville, Kentucky, September 14-16, 1862—50th, 60th (detachment, recruits), 17th (mounted), 67th, 68th, 74th, and 89th Regiments; 13th Battery.

Murfreesboro (defense), December 7, 1864—140th Regiment.

Mustang Island, Texas, November 17, 1863—8th and 18th Regiments.

Nashville, Tennessee, December 15-16, 1864—9th, 30th, 31st, 35th, 36th, 40th, 51st, 52d, 57th, 63d, 65th, 68th, 71st (cavalry), 79th, 80th, 81st, 84th, 86th, 89th, 91st, 93d, 120th, 123d, 124th, 125th (cavalry), 126th (cavalry), 128th, 129th, 130th and detachment 131st (cavalry) Regiments; 2d, 3d, 9th, 12th, 14th, 15th, 18th, 20th, 21st, 22d, 23d, 24th and 25th Batteries.

New Hope Church, Georgia, May 25, 1864—6th, 9th 12th, 17th, 27th, 31st, 33d, 36th, 40th, 57th, 70th, 79th. 83d, 91st, 97th, 100th, and 128th Regiments; 5th Battery.

New Madrid, Missouri (siege), March 3-14, 1862, 34th, 43d, 46th, 47th, and 59th Regiments.

Newman, Georgia, July 31, 1864—41st (cavalry), 77th (cavalry) Regiments; 18th Battery.

- New Market, Tennessee, December —, 1863—79th Regiment.
- New Market, Virginia, September 23, 1864—8th, 11th and 18th Regiments; 17th Battery.
- Newtonia, Missouri, October 10, 1862—26th Regiment; 2d Battery.
- North Anna River, Virginia, May 25, 1864—7th, 14th, 19th and 20th Regiments.
- Nottoway, C. H., Virginia, June —, 1864—Right wing, 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Okolona, Mississippi, February 22, 1864—119th Regiment (cavalry).
- Old Oaks, Louisiana, May —, 1864—3d Battery.
- Opelousas, Louisiana, October 21, 1863—11th Regiment.
- Opequan, Virginia, September 19, 1864—8th, 11th, 18th and right wing 45th (cavalry) Regiments, 17th Battery.
- Orchards, Virginia, June 25, 1862—20th Regiment.
- Overall's Creek, Tennessee, December —, 1864—127th (cavalry), detachment 131st (cavalry) Regiments.
- Palmetto Ranche, Texas, May 13, 1865—34th Regiment.
- Pickett's Mills, Georgia, June —, 1864—86th Regiment.
- Pine Mountain, Georgia, June —, 1864—5th Battery.
- Peach Tree Creek, Georgia, July 20, 1864—9th, 22d, 27th, 32d, 33d, 37th, 40th, 42d, 43d, 57th, 70th, 74th, 75th, 82d, 84th, 85th, 86th, 87th, 88th and 91st Regiments; 5th and 19th Batteries.
- Parker's Cross Roads, Tennessee, December 31, 1862—50th infantry.
- Pea Ridge, Arkansas, November 6-8, 1862—8th, 18th and 22d Regiments; 1st Battery.
- Pea Ridge, Tennessee, April 15, 1862—41st Regiment (cavalry).

Perryville, Indian Territory, August 28, 1863—Detachment 2d Battery.

Perryville, or Chaplin Hills, Kentucky, October 8, 1862—9th, 10th, 15th, 22d, 35th, 38th, 41st (cavalry), 42d, 44th, 57th, 79th, 80th, 87th and 88th Regiments; 4th, 5th, 7th, 8th and 19th Batteries.

Petersburg, Virginia (siege), June 16, 1864 to April 3, 1865—7th, 13th, detachment of 14th, 19th, 20th and 28th United States (colored) Regiments.

Philamont, Virginia, November 1, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Philippi, Virginia, June 3, 1861—6th, 7th and 9th Regiments.

Pleasant Hill, Louisiana, April 9, 1864—46th, 47th, detachment of 52d and 89th Regiments; 1st, 3d and 9th Batteries.

Po River, Virginia, May 10-12, 1864—7th, 14th, 19th and 20th Regiments.

Port Gibson, Mississippi, May 1, 1863—8th, 11th, 16th, 18th, 24th, 34th, 46th, 49th, 54th, 60th, 67th and 69th Regiments; 1st Battery.

Port Hudson, Mississippi (siege), May 21 to July 8, 1863—21st Regiment (heavy artillery).

Port Republic, Virginia, June 9, 1862—7th infantry.

Powder Spring Gap, Tennessee, December 15, 1863—65th infantry.

Prairie Grove, Arkansas, December 7, 1862—26th infantry; 2d Battery.

Prairie Leon, Arkansas, April 10, 1864—43d and 50th Regiments; 2d Battery.

Pumpkinvine Church, Virginia, June —, 1864—17th infantry.

- Pulaski, Tennessee, September 27, 1864—71st (cavalry), 125th (cavalry) and 126th (cavalry) Regiments.
- Rappahannock Station, Virginia, August 4, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Raymond, Mississippi, May 12, 1863—23d, 48th and 49th Regiments.
- Richmond, Kentucky, August 29-30, 1862—12th, 16th, 66th, 69th, 71st (cavalry) Regiments.
- Rich Mountain, Virginia, July 1, 1861—8th, 10th and 13th Regiments.
- Riddle's Shop, Virginia, June 13, 1864—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Ringgold, Georgia, November 27, 1863—88th infantry.
- River's Bridge, South Carolina, February 2-3, 1865—25th infantry.
- Red Mound, Arkansas, April 17, 1864—43d and 50th Regiments; 2d Battery.
- Red Oak Station, Georgia, August 20, 1864—22d infantry.
- Reynold's Hill, Tennessee, December —, 1864—125th Regiment (cavalry).
- Resaca, Georgia, May 15, 1864—6th, 9th, 12th, 22d, 27th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 33d, 35th, 36th, 37th, 38th, 40th, 42d, 57th, 63d, 65th, 66th, 70th, 71st (cavalry), 75th, 79th, 80th, 81st, 82d, 84th, 85th, 86th, 87th, 88th, 97th, 99th, 100th, 101st, 120th, 123d, 124th, 128th, 129th and 130th Regiments; 5th, 7th, 11th, 15th, 18th, 19th, 22d, 23d and 24th Batteries.
- Rheatown, Tennessee, October 11, 1863—65th infantry.
- Roanoke Station, Virginia, June —, 1864—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Rock Springs, Georgia, September 12, 1863—72d infantry (mounted).

Rocky Face Ridge, Georgia, May 9, 1864—22d, 57th, 63d, 81st, 84th, 86th, 87th, 99th, 123d and 130th Regiments; 5th, 15th and 19th Batteries.

Rome, Georgia, May 17, 1864—17th, 22d Regiments.

Romney, Virginia, June 11, 1861—11th infantry.

Round Hill, Arkansas, July 7, 1862—28th Regiment (cavalry).

Round Lake, Louisiana, May —, 1864—3d Battery.

Rowlett's Station, Kentucky, December 17, 1861—Detachment 32d infantry.

Russellville, Kentucky, September 30, 1862—70th infantry.

Sabine Cross Roads, Louisiana, or Mansfield, April 8, 1864—16th, 21st (heavy artillery), 46th, 47th, 60th and 67th Regiments; 1st Battery.

Salem Church, Virginia, June 3, 1864—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Sailor's Creek, Virginia, April 2, 1865—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

Savage's Station, Virginia, June 29, 1862—20th infantry.

Savannah, Georgia (siege), December 10-21, 1864—12th, 22d, 25th and 42d Regiments.

Scottsville, Alabama, April 2, 1865—41st Regiment (cavalry).

Second Bull Run, Virginia, August 28-30, 1862—7th, 19th, 20th and 63d Regiments; 16th Battery.

Selma, Alabama, April 2, 1865—17th, 72d infantry (mounted), and 77th (cavalry) Regiments; 18th Battery.

Shiloh, Tennessee, April 6-7, 1862—6th, 9th, 11th, 15th, 23d, 24th, 25th, 29th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 36th, 39th (cavalry), 44th and 57th Regiments; 6th and 9th Batteries.

Skagg's Mills, Tennessee, December 15, 1863—65th infantry.

Snake Creek Gap, Georgia, October 15, 1864—25th infantry.

Snicker's Gap, Virginia, November 11, 1863—16th Battery.
South Mountain, Maryland, September 14, 1862—19th, right wing, 45th (cavalry) Regiments; 16th Battery.

Spanish Fort, Alabama (siege), March 27 to April 19, 1865—21st (heavy artillery), 26th, 50th, 52d, 93d, 125th (cavalry), 127th (cavalry), 131st (cavalry) Regiments; 1st and 14th Batteries.

Spottsylvania, Virginia, May 8-10, 1864—7th, 14th, 19th, 20th and right wing 45th (cavalry) Regiments.

Stone Mountain, Georgia, July, 1864—17th infantry.

Stone River, Tennessee, December 31, 1862 to January 2, 1863—6th, 9th, 15th, 22d, 29th, 30th, 31st, 32d, 35th, 36th, 37th, 38th, 39th (cavalry), 40th, 42d, 44th, left wing 45th (cavalry), 51st, 57th, 58th, 73d, 79th, 81st, 82d, 86th and 88th Regiments; 4th, 5th, 7th, 8th and 10th Batteries.

Stony Creek, Virginia, April 2, 1865—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).

St. Charles, Arkansas, June 17, 1862—46th infantry.

Strawberry Plains, Virginia, September 15, 1864—13th and 20th Regiments.

Suffolk, Virginia (defense), April 10 to May 3, 1864—13th infantry.

Sugar Creek, Tennessee, December —, 1864—125th Regiment (cavalry).

Sulphur Branch Trestle, Alabama, September 25, 1864—Detachment 121st Regiment (cavalry).

Summerville, Virginia, May 7, 1862—13th infantry.

Sunshine Church, Georgia, July 31, 1864—24th Battery.

Talbot's Station, Tennessee, December 29, 1863—41st Regiment (cavalry).

Taylor's Ridge, Georgia, May —, 1864—9th infantry.

- Terre Noir, Arkansas, April 2, 1864—43d and 50th Regiments; 2d Battery.
- The Wilderness, Virginia, May 5-6, 1864—7th, 14th, 19th and 20th Regiments.
- Thompson's Cove, Tennessee, October 3, 1863—17th Regiment; 18th Battery.
- Thompson's Hill, Mississippi, May —, 1863—23d infantry.
- Thompson's Station, Tennessee, March 5, 1863—33d and 85th Regiments.
- Town Creek Bridge, North Carolina, February 20, 1865—13th, 63d, 65th, 80th, 91st and 140th Regiments; 15th Battery.
- Triune, Tennessee, June 11, 1863—41st (cavalry) and 84th Regiments.
- Tunnel Hill, Georgia, May 7, 1864—6th, 9th, 22d, 48th and 84th Regiments; 5th Battery.
- Tupello, Mississippi, June 14, 1864—52d, 89th and 93d Regiments; 3d, 6th and 9th Batteries.
- Tuscumbia, Alabama, May 31, 1862—41st Regiment (cavalry).
- Union, Virginia, November 2, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Upperville, Virginia, November 3, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry); June 21, 1864—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Van Buren, Arkansas, December 29, 1862—26th infantry; 2d Battery.
- Vanderburgh, Kentucky, September 12, 1862—Detachment 65th infantry.
- Varnell's Station, Georgia, May 9, 1864—41st (cavalry) and 77th (cavalry) Regiments.
- Vernon, Mississippi, December 28, 1864—119th Regiment (cavalry).

- Versailles, Kentucky, October 5, 1862—13th Battery.
- Vicksburg, Mississippi (siege), May 18 to July 4, 1863—8th, 11th, 12th, 16th, 18th, 23d, 24th, 26th, 34th, 46th, 47th, 48th, 49th, 53d, 54th, 59th, 60th, 67th, 69th, 83d, 93d, 99th and 100th Regiments; 1st Battery.
- Vinegar Hill, Kentucky, September 22, 1862—41st Regiment (cavalry).
- Walker's Ford, Tennessee, December 2, 1863—65th, 90th (cavalry), 116th and 118th Regiments.
- Wathel Junction, Virginia, May 7, 1864—13th infantry.
- West Point, Georgia, April 16, 1865—41st (cavalry) and 72d (mounted) Regiments; 18th Battery.
- White Oak Swamp, Virginia, June 30, 1862—20th infantry; June 13, 1864—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Wild Cat, Kentucky, October 21, 1861—33d infantry.
- Wilkinson's Pike, Tennessee, December 8, 1864—127th (cavalry), detachment 131st (cavalry) Regiments.
- Williamsport, Maryland, July 11, 1863—Right wing 45th Regiment (cavalry).
- Winchester, Virginia, March 22-23, 1862—7th, 13th and 14th Regiments; May 25, 1862—27th infantry.
- Wise's Forks, North Carolina, March 10, 1865—120th 123d, 124th, 128th, 129th and 130th Regiments.
- Yellow Bayou, Louisiana, May 18, 1864—52d and 89th Regiments; 1st, 3d and 9th Batteries.
- Yellow House, Virginia, August 19-21, 1864—7th and detachment of 19th Regiments.
- Zollicoffer, Tennessee, September 20, 1863—65th and 90th (cavalry) Regiments.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE STATE OF INDIANA, 1851.

PREAMBLE.

To the end that justice be established, public order maintained, and liberty perpetuated: We, the people of the State of Indiana, grateful to Almighty God for the free exercise of the right to choose our own form of government, do ordain this Constitution.

ARTICLE I.

BILL OF RIGHTS.

Section 1. We declare that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that all power is inherent in the people; and that all free governments are, and of right ought to be, founded on their authority, and instituted for their peace, safety and well being. For the advancement of these ends, the people have at all time an indefeasible right to alter and reform their government.

Sec. 2. All men shall be secured in their natural rights to worship Almighty God according to the dictates of their own consciences.

Sec. 3. No law shall, in any case whatever, control the free exercise and enjoyment of religious opinions, or interfere with the rights of conscience.

Sec. 4. No preference shall be given, by law, to any creed, religious society or mode of worship; and no man shall be compelled to attend, erect or support any place of worship, or to maintain any ministry against his consent.

Sec. 5. No religious test shall be required as a qualification for any office of trust or profit.

Sec. 6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury for the benefit of any religious or theological institution.

Sec. 7. No person shall be rendered incompetent as a witness, in consequence of his opinion on matters of religion.

Sec. 8. The mode of administering an oath or affirmation shall be such as may be most consistent with, and binding upon, the conscience of the person to whom such oath or affirmation may be administered.

Sec. 9. No law shall be passed restraining the free interchange of thought and opinion, or restricting the right to speak, write, or print, freely, on any subject whatever; but for the abuse of that right every person shall be responsible.

Sec. 10. In all prosecutions for libel, the truth of the matters alleged to be libelous may be given in justification.

Sec. 11. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable search or seizure shall not be violated, and no warrant shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the person or thing to be seized.

Sec. 12. All courts shall be open; and every man, for injury done to him, in his person, property or reputation, shall have remedy by due course of law. Justice shall be ad-

ministered freely and without purchase; completely, and without denial; speedily, and without delay.

Sec. 13. In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall have the right to a public trial, by an impartial jury in the county in which the offense shall have been committed; to be heard by himself and counsel; to demand the nature and cause of the accusation against him, and to have a copy thereof; to meet the witnesses face to face, and to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor.

Sec. 14. No person shall be put in jeopardy twice for the same offense. No person, in any criminal prosecution, shall be compelled to testify against himself.

Sec. 15. No person arrested, or confined in jail, shall be treated with unnecessary rigor.

Sec. 16. Excessive bail shall not be required. Excessive fines shall not be imposed. Cruel and unusual punishment shall not be inflicted. All penalties shall be proportioned to the nature of the offense.

Sec. 17. Offenses, other than murder or treason, shall be bailable by sufficient sureties. Murder or treason shall not be bailable when the proof is evident, or the presumption strong.

Sec. 18. The penal code shall be founded on the principles of reformation, and not of vindictive justice.

Sec. 19. In all criminal cases whatever, the jury shall have the right to determine the law and the facts.

Sec. 20. In all civil cases the right of trial by jury shall remain inviolate.

Sec. 21. No man's particular services shall be demanded without just compensation. No man's property shall be taken by law without just compensation; nor, except in case of the State, without such compensation first assessed and tendered.

Sec. 22. The privilege of the debtor to enjoy the necessary comforts of life, shall be recognized by wholesome laws, exempting a reasonable amount of property from seizure or sale for the payment of any debt or liability hereafter contracted; and there shall be no imprisonment for debt, except in case of fraud.

Sec. 23. The General Assembly shall not grant to any citizen, or class of citizens, privileges or immunities which, upon the same terms, shall not equally belong to all citizens.

Sec. 24. No *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contract, shall ever be passed.

Sec. 25. No law shall be passed, the taking effect of which shall be made to depend upon any authority, except as provided in this Constitution.

Sec. 26. The operation of the laws shall never be suspended except by the authority of the General Assembly.

Sec. 27. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, except in case of rebellion or invasion, and then only if the public safety demand it.

Sec. 28. Treason against the State shall consist only in levying war against it, and giving aid and comfort to its enemies.

Sec. 29. No person shall be convicted of treason, except on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or upon his confession in open court.

Sec. 30. No conviction shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture of estate.

Sec. 31. No law shall restrain any of the inhabitants of the State from assembling together, in a peaceable manner, to consult for their common good; nor from instructing their representatives; nor from applying to the General Assembly for redress of grievances.

Sec. 32. The people shall have a right to bear arms for the defense of themselves and the State.

Sec. 33. The military shall be kept in strict subordination to the civil power.

Sec. 34. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Sec. 35. The General Assembly shall not grant any title of nobility, nor confer hereditary distinctions.

Sec. 36. Emigration from the State shall not be prohibited.

Sec. 37. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, within the State, otherwise than for the punishment of crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted. No indenture of any negro or mulatto, made or executed out of the bounds of the State, shall be valid within the State.

ARTICLE II.

SUFFRAGE AND ELECTION.

Section 1. All elections shall be free and equal.

Sec. 2. In all elections not otherwise provided for by this Constitution, every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the State during the six months, and in the township sixty days, and in the ward or precinct thirty days immediately preceding such election; and every male of foreign birth, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the United States one year, and shall have resided in this State during the six months, and in the township sixty days, and in the ward or precinct thirty days,

immediately preceding such election, and shall have declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, conformably to the laws of the United States on the subject of naturalization, shall be entitled to vote in the township or precinct where he may reside, if he shall have been duly registered according to law. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

Sec. 3. No soldier, seaman or marine, in the army or navy of the United States, or their allies, shall be deemed to have acquired a residence in this State in consequence of having been stationed within the same; nor shall any such soldier, seaman or marine, have the right to vote.

Sec. 4. No person shall be deemed to have lost his residence in the State by reason of his absence either on business of the State or of the United States.

Sec. 5. (Stricken out by constitutional amendment of March 24, 1881.)

Sec. 6. Every person shall be disqualified from holding office during the term for which he may have been elected, who shall have given or offered a bribe, threat, or reward to procure his election.

Sec. 7. Every person who shall give or accept a challenge to fight a duel, or who shall knowingly carry to another person such challenge, or who shall agree to go out of the State to fight a duel, shall be ineligible to any office of trust or profit.

Sec. 8. The General Assembly shall have power to deprive of the right of suffrage, and to render ineligible any person convicted of an infamous crime.

Sec. 9. No person holding a lucrative office or appointment, under the United States, or under this State, shall be eligible to a seat in the General Assembly; nor shall any person hold more than one lucrative office at the same time,

except as in this Constitution expressly permitted: *Provided*, That offices in the militia, to which there is attached no annual salary, and the office of Deputy Postmaster, where the compensation does not exceed ninety dollars per annum, shall not be deemed lucrative. *And provided, also*, That counties containing less than one thousand polls may confer the office of Clerk, Recorder and Auditor, or any two of said offices, upon the same person.

Sec. 10. No person who may hereafter be a collector or holder of public moneys, shall be eligible to any office of trust or profit until he shall have accounted for and paid over, according to law, all sums for which he may be liable.

Sec. 11. In all cases in which it is provided that an office shall not be filled by the same person more than a certain number of years continuously, an appointment *pro tempore* shall not be reckoned a part of that term.

Sec. 12. In all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, electors shall be free from arrest in going to elections, during their attendance there, and in returning from the same.

Sec. 13. All elections by the people shall be by ballot; and all elections by the General Assembly, or by either branch thereof, shall be *viva voce*.

Sec. 14. All general elections shall be held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November; but township elections may be held at such time as may be provided by law: *Provided*, That the General Assembly may provide by law for the election of all judges of courts of general or appellate jurisdiction, by an election to be held for such officers only, at which time no other officer shall be voted for; and shall also provide for the registration of all persons entitled to vote. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

ARTICLE III.

DISTRIBUTION OF POWERS.

Section 1. The powers of the Government are divided into three separate departments: the Legislative, the Executive (including the administrative), and the Judicial; and no person charged with official duties under one of these departments shall exercise any of the functions of another except as in this Constitution expressly provided.

ARTICLE IV.

LEGISLATIVE.

Section 1. The Legislative authority of the State shall be vested in a General Assembly, which shall consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The style of every law shall be, "Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana;" and no law shall be enacted except by bill.

Sec. 2. The Senate shall not exceed fifty, nor the House of Representatives one hundred members; and they shall be chosen by the electors of the respective counties or districts into which the State may, from time to time, be divided.

Sec. 3. Senators shall be elected for the term of four years, and Representatives for the term of two years, from the day next after their general election: *Provided, however,* That the Senators-elect, at the second meeting of the General Assembly under this Constitution, shall be divided, by lot, into two equal classes, as nearly as may be; and the seats of Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of two years, and those of the second class at the expiration of four years; so that one-half, as nearly as possible, shall

be chosen biennially forever thereafter. And in case of increase in the number of Senators, they shall be so annexed by lot, to the one or the other of the two classes, as to keep them as nearly equal as practicable.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall, at its second session after the adoption of this Constitution, and every sixth year thereafter, cause an enumeration to be made of all the male inhabitants over the age of twenty-one years. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

Sec. 5. The number of Senators and Representatives shall, at the session next following each period of making such enumeration, be fixed by law, and apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of male inhabitants, above twenty-one years of age, in each: *Provided*, That the first and second elections of members of the General Assembly under this Constitution shall be according to the apportionment last made by the General Assembly before the adoption of this Constitution. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

Sec. 6. A Senatorial or Representative district, where more than one county shall constitute a district, shall be composed of contiguous counties; and no county, for Senatorial apportionment, shall ever be divided.

Sec. 7. No person shall be a Senator or a Representative, who, at the time of his election, is not a citizen of the United States; nor any one who has not been, for two years next preceding his election, an inhabitant of this State, and for on year next preceding his election, an inhabitant of the county or district whence he may be chosen. Senators shall be at least twenty-five, and Representatives at least twenty-one years of age.

Sec. 8. Senators and Representatives, in all cases ex-

cept treason, felony, and breach of the peace, shall be privileged from arrest during the session of the General Assembly, and in going to and returning from the same; and shall not be subject to any civil process during the session of the General Assembly, nor during the fifteen days next before the commencement thereof. For any speech or debate in either House, a member shall not be questioned in any other place.

Sec. 9. The sessions of the General Assembly shall be held biennially, at the capital of the State, commencing on the Thursday next after the first Monday of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three, and on the same day of every second year thereafter, unless a different day or place shall have been appointed by law. But if, in the opinion of the Governor, the public welfare shall require it, he may, at any time, by proclamation, call a special session.

Sec. 10. Each House, when assembled, shall choose its own officers (the President of the Senate excepted), judge the elections, qualifications and returns of its own members, determine its rules of proceeding, and sit upon its own adjournment. But neither House shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any place other than that in which it may be sitting.

Sec. 11. Two-thirds of each House shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may meet, adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of absent members. A quorum being in attendance, if either House fail to effect an organization within the first five days thereafter, the members of the House so failing shall be entitled to no compensation from the end of the said five days, until an organization shall have been effected..

Sec. 12. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and publish the same. The yeas and nays, on any question, shall, at the request of any two members, be entered, together with the names of the members demanding the same, on the journal: *Provided*, That on a motion to adjourn, it shall require one-tenth of the members present to order the yeas and nays.

Sec. 13. The doors of each House, and of Committees of the Whole, shall be kept open, except in such cases as, in the opinion of either House, may require secrecy.

Sec. 14. Either House may punish its members for disorderly behavior, and may, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member; but not a second time for the same cause.

Sec. 15. Either House, during its session, may punish, by imprisonment, any person not a member, who shall have been guilty of disrespect to the House, by disorderly or contemptuous behavior in its presence; but such imprisonment shall not, at any time, exceed twenty-four hours.

Sec. 16. Each House shall have all powers necessary for a branch of the legislative department of a free and independent State.

Sec. 17. Bills may originate in either House, but may be amended or rejected in the other, except that bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives.

Sec. 18. Every bill shall be read by sections, on three several days in each House; unless, in case of emergency, two-thirds of the House where such bill may be depending shall, by a vote of yeas and nays, deem it expedient to dispense with this rule; but the reading of a bill by sections, on its final passage, shall in no case be dispensed with; and

the vote on the passage of every bill or joint resolution shall be taken by yeas and nays.

Sec. 19. Every act shall embrace but one subject, and matters properly connected therewith; which subject shall be expressed in the title. But if any subject shall be embraced in an act, which shall not be expressed in the title, such act shall be void only as to so much thereof as shall not be expressed in the title.

Sec. 20. Every act and joint resolution shall be plainly worded, avoiding, as far as practicable, the use of technical terms.

Sec. 21. No act shall ever be revised or amended by mere reference to its title; but the act revised, or section amended, shall be set forth and published at full length.

Sec. 22. The General Assembly shall not pass local or special laws in any of the following enumerated cases, that is to say:

Regulating the jurisdiction and duties of justices of the peace and of constables;

For the punishment of crimes and misdemeanors;

Regulating the practice in courts of justice;

Providing for changing the venue in civil and criminal cases;

Granting divorces;

Changing the names of persons;

For laying out, opening and working on, highways, and for the election or appointment of supervisors;

Vacating roads, town plats, streets, alleys and public squares;

Summoning and impaneling grand and petit juries, and providing for their compensation;

Regulating county and township business;

Regulating the election of county and township officers, and their compensation;

For the assessment and collection of taxes for State, county, township or road purposes;

Providing for supporting common schools, and for the preservation of school funds;

In relation to fees or salaries; except that the laws may be so made as to grade the compensation of officers in proportion to the population and the necessary services required. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

In relation to interest on money;

Providing for opening and conducting elections of State, county or township officers, and designating the places of voting;

Providing for the sale of real estate belonging to minors, or other persons laboring under legal disabilities, by executors, administrators, guardians or trustees.

Sec. 23. In all the cases enumerated in the preceding section, and in all other cases where a general law can be made applicable, all laws shall be general and of uniform operation throughout the State.

Sec. 24. Provisions may be made by general law, for bringing suits against the State, as to all liabilities originating after the adoption of this Constitution; but no special act authorizing such suit to be brought, or making compensation to any person claiming damages against the State, shall ever be passed.

Sec. 25. A majority of all the members elected to each House shall be necessary to pass every bill or joint resolution; and all bills and joint resolutions so passed shall be signed by the presiding officers of the respective Houses.

Sec. 26. Any member of either House shall have the

right to protest, and to have his protest, with his reasons for dissent, entered on the journal.

Sec. 27. Every statute shall be a public law, unless otherwise declared in the statute itself.

Sec. 28. No act shall take effect until the same shall have been published and circulated in the several counties of this State, by authority, except in case of emergency; which emergency shall be declared in the preamble or in the body of the law.

Sec. 29. The members of the General Assembly shall receive for their services a compensation, to be fixed by law; but no increase of compensation shall take effect during the session at which such increase may be made. No session of the General Assembly, except the first under this Constitution, shall extend beyond the term of sixty-one days, nor any special session beyond the term of forty days.

Sec. 30. No Senator or Representative shall, during the term for which he may have been elected, be eligible to any office, the election to which is vested in the General Assembly, nor shall he be appointed to any civil office of profit, which shall have been created, or the emoluments of which shall have been increased, during such term; but this latter provision shall not be construed to apply to any office elective by the people.

ARTICLE V.

EXECUTIVE.

Section 1. The executive powers of the State shall be vested in a Governor. He shall hold his office during four years, and shall not be eligible more than four years in any period of eight years.

Sec. 2. There shall be a Lieutenant Governor, who shall hold his office during four years.

Sec. 3. The Governor and Lieutenant Governor shall be elected at the times and places of choosing members of the General Assembly.

Sec. 4. In voting for Governor and Lieutenant Governor the electors shall designate for whom they vote as Governor, and for whom as Lieutenant Governor. The returns of every election for Governor and Lieutenant Governor shall be sealed up and transmitted to the seat of government, directed to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, who shall open and publish them in the presence of both Houses of the General Assembly.

Sec. 5. The persons, respectively, having the highest number of votes for Governor and Lieutenant Governor, shall be elected; but in case two or more persons shall have an equal and the highest number of votes for either office, the General Assembly shall, by joint vote, forthwith proceed to elect one of the said persons Governor or Lieutenant Governor, as the case may be.

Sec. 6. Contested elections for Governor or Lieutenant Governor shall be determined by the General Assembly, in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 7. No person shall be eligible to the office of Governor or Lieutenant Governor, who shall not have been five years a citizen of the United States, and also a resident of the State of Indiana during the five years next preceding his election; nor shall any person be eligible to either of the said offices who shall not have attained the age of thirty years.

Sec. 8. No member of Congress, or person holding any office under the United States, or under this State, shall fill the office of Governor or Lieutenant Governor.

Sec. 9. The official term of the Governor or Lieutenant Governor shall commence on the second Monday of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three; and on the same day every fourth year thereafter.

Sec. 10. In case of the removal of the Governor from office, or of his death, resignation or inability to discharge the duties of the office, the same shall devolve on the Lieutenant Governor; and the General Assembly shall, by law, provide for the case of removal from office, death, resignation, or inability, both of the Governor and Lieutenant Governor, declaring what officer then shall act as Governor; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed or a Governor be elected.

Sec. 11. Whenever the Lieutenant Governor shall act as Governor, or shall be unable to attend as President of the Senate, the Senate shall elect one of its own members as President for the occasion.

Sec. 12. The Governor shall be commander-in-chief of the military and naval forces, and may call out such forces to execute the laws, or to suppress insurrection, or to repel invasion.

Sec. 13. He shall, from time to time, give to the General Assembly information touching the condition of the State, and recommend such measures as he shall judge to be expedient.

Sec. 14 Every bill which shall have passed the General Assembly shall be presented to the Governor; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to the House in which it shall have originated, which house shall enter the objections at large upon its journals, and proceed to reconsider the bill. If, after such reconsideration, a majority of all the members elected to that

House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, with the Governor's objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by a majority of all the members elected to that House, it shall be a law. If any bill shall not be returned by the Governor within three days, Sundays excepted, after it shall have been presented to him, it shall be a law without his signature, unless the general adjournment shall prevent its return, in which case it shall be a law, unless the Governor, within five days next after such adjournment, shall file such bill, with his objections thereto, in the office of the Secretary of State, who shall lay the same before the General Assembly at its next session in like manner as if it had been returned by the Governor. But no bill shall be presented to the Governor within two days next previous to the final adjournment of the General Assembly.

Sec. 15. The Governor shall transact all necessary business with the officers of Government, and may require any information in writing from the officers of the administrative department, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices.

Sec. 16. He shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Sec. 17. He shall have the power to grant reprieves, commutations and pardons, after conviction, for all offenses except treason and cases of impeachment, subject to such regulations as may be provided by law. Upon conviction for treason, he shall have power to suspend the execution of the sentence until the case shall be reported to the General Assembly at its next meeting, when the General Assembly shall either grant a pardon, commute the sentence, direct the execution of the sentence, or grant a further reprieve.

He shall have power to remit fines and forfeitures, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law, and shall report to the General Assembly at its next meeting, each case of reprieve, commutation or pardon granted, and also the names of all persons in whose favor remission of fines and forfeitures shall have been made, and the several amounts remitted: Provided, however, That the General Assembly may, by law, constitute a council, to be composed of officers of State, without whose advice and consent the Governor shall not have power to grant pardons, in any case, except such as may, by law, be left to his sole power.

Sec. 18. When, during a recess of the General Assembly, a vacancy shall happen in any office, the appointment to which is vested in the General Assembly, or when, at any time, a vacancy shall have occurred in any other State office, or in the office of Judge of any court, the Governor shall fill such vacancy by appointment, which shall expire when a successor shall have been elected and qualified.

Sec. 19. He shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies as may have occurred in the General Assembly.

Sec. 20. Should the Seat of Government become dangerous from disease or a common enemy, he may convene the General Assembly at any other place.

Sec. 21. The Lieutenant Governor shall, by virtue of his office, be President of the Senate; have a right, when in Committee of the Whole, to join in debate, and to vote on all subjects, and, whenever the Senate shall be equally divided, he shall give the casting vote.

Sec. 22. The Governor shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the term for which he shall have been elected.

Sec. 23. The Lieutenant Governor, while he shall act as President of the Senate, shall receive for his services the same compensation as the Speaker of the House of Representatives; and any person acting as Governor shall receive the compensation attached to the office of Governor.

Sec. 24. Neither the Governor nor Lieutenant Governor shall be eligible to any other office during the term for which he shall have been elected.

ARTICLE VI.

ADMINISTRATIVE.

Section 1. There shall be elected by the voters of the State, a Secretary, an Auditor, and a Treasurer of State, who shall severally hold their offices for two years. They shall perform such duties as may be enjoined by law; and no person shall be eligible to either of said offices more than four years in any period of six years.

Sec. 2. There shall be elected in each county, by the voters thereof, at the time of holding general elections, a Clerk of the Circuit Court, Auditor, Recorder, Treasurer, Sheriff, Coroner, and Surveyor. The Clerk, Auditor and Recorder shall continue in office four years; and no person shall be eligible to the office of Clerk, Recorder or Auditor more than eight years in any period of twelve years. The Treasurer, Sheriff, Coroner, and Surveyor shall continue in office two years; and no person shall be eligible to the office of Treasurer or Sheriff more than four years in any period of six years.

Sec. 3. Such other county and township officers as may be necessary, shall be elected or appointed, in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 4. No person shall be elected or appointed as a county officer, who shall not be an elector of the county; nor any one who shall not have been an inhabitant thereof during one year next preceding his appointment, if the county shall have been so long organized; but if the county shall not have been so long organized, then within the limits of the county or counties out of which the same shall have been taken.

Sec. 5. The Governor, and the Secretary, Auditor and Treasurer of State, shall, severally, reside and keep the public records, books and papers, in any manner relating to the respective offices, at the seat of government.

Sec. 6. All county, township, and town officers shall reside within their respective counties, townships, and towns, and shall keep their respective offices at such places therein, and perform such duties as may be directed by law.

Sec. 7. All State officers shall, for crime, incapacity or negligence, be liable to be removed from office, either by impeachment by the House of Representatives, to be tried by the Senate, or by a joint resolution of the General Assembly; two-thirds of the members elected to each branch voting, in either case, therefor.

Sec. 8. All State, county, township and town officers may be impeached, or removed from office, in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 9. Vacancies in county, township and town offices shall be filled in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 10. The General Assembly may confer upon the Boards doing county business in the several counties, powers of a local administrative character.

ARTICLE VII.**JUDICIAL.**

Section 1. The Judicial power of the State shall be vested in a Supreme Court, in Circuit Courts and in such other courts as the General Assembly may establish. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

Sec. 2. The Supreme Court shall consist of not less than three, nor more than five judges; a majority of whom shall form a quorum. They shall hold their offices for six years, if they so long behave well.

Sec. 3. The State shall be divided into as many districts as there are Judges of the Supreme Court, and such districts shall be formed of contiguous territory, as nearly equal in population as, without dividing a county, the same can be made. One of said Judges shall be elected from each district and reside therein; but said Judge shall be elected by the electors of the State at large.

Sec. 4. The Supreme Court shall have jurisdiction, co-extensive with the limits of the State, in appeals and writs of error, under such regulations and restrictions as may be prescribed by law. It shall also have such original jurisdiction as the General Assembly may confer.

Sec. 5. The Supreme Court shall, upon the decision of every case, give a statement in writing of each question arising in the record of such case, and the decision of the Court thereon.

Sec. 6. The General Assembly shall provide by law for the speedy publication of the decisions of the Supreme Court made under this Constitution, but no judge shall be allowed to report such decision.

Sec. 7. There shall be elected by the voters of the State, a Clerk of the Supreme Court, who shall hold his office four years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 8. The Circuit Courts shall each consist of one judge, and shall have such civil and criminal jurisdiction as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 9. The State shall, from time to time, be divided into judicial circuits, and a judge for each circuit shall be elected by the voters thereof. He shall reside within the circuit, and shall hold his office for the term of six years, if he so long behave well.

Sec. 10. The General Assembly may provide, by law, that the judge of one circuit may hold the courts of another circuit, in cases of necessity or convenience; and in case of temporary inability of any judge, from sickness or other cause, to hold the courts in his circuit, provision may be made, by law, for holding such courts.

Sec. 11. There shall be elected, in each judicial circuit, by the voters thereof, a prosecuting attorney, who shall hold his office for two years.

Sec. 12. Any judge or prosecuting attorney, who shall have been convicted of corruption or other high crime, may, on information in the name of the State, be removed from office by the Supreme Court, or in such other manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 13. The judges of the Supreme Court and Circuit Courts shall, at stated times, receive a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sec. 14. A competent number of justices of the peace shall be elected by the voters in each township in the several counties. They shall continue in office four years, and their powers and duties shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 15. All judicial officers shall be conservators of the peace in their respective jurisdictions..

Sec. 16. No person elected to any judicial office shall, during the term for which he shall have been elected, be eligible to any office of trust or profit under the State, other than a judicial office.

Sec. 17. The General Assembly may modify or abolish the Grand Jury system.

Sec. 18. All criminal prosecutions shall be carried on in the name, and by the authority of the State; and the style of all processes shall be, "The State of Indiana."

Sec. 19. Tribunals of conciliation may be established, with such powers and duties as shall be prescribed by law; or the powers and duties of the same may be conferred upon other courts of justice; but such tribunals or other courts, when sitting as such, shall have no power to render judgment to be obligatory on the parties unless they voluntarily submit their matters of difference and agree to abide the judgment of such tribunal or court.

Sec. 20. The General Assembly, at it first session after the adoption of this Constitution, shall provide for the appointment of three commissioners, whose duty it shall be to revise, simplify and abridge the rules, practice, pleadings and forms of the courts of justice. And they shall provide for abolishing the distinct forms of action at law now in use; and that justice shall be administered in a uniform mode of pleading, without distinction between law and equity. And the General Assembly may, also, make it the duty of said commissioners to reduce into a systematic code the general statute law of the State; and said commissioners shall report the result of their labors to the General Assembly, with such recommendations and suggestions, as to the

abridgement and amendment, as to said commissioners may seem necessary and proper. Provision shall be made by law for filling vacancies, regulating the tenure of office and the compensation of said commissioners.

Sec. 21. Every person of good moral character, being a voter, shall be entitled to admission to practice law in all courts of justice.

ARTICLE VIII.

EDUCATION.

Section 1. Knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to encourage, by all suitable means, moral, intellectual, scientific and agricultural improvement, and to provide by law for a general and uniform system of common schools, wherein tuition shall be without charge, and equally open to all.

Sec. 2. The common school fund shall consist of the congressional township fund, and the lands belonging thereto;

The surplus revenue fund;

The saline fund, and the lands belonging thereto;

The bank tax fund, and the fund arising from the one hundred and fourteenth section of the charter of the State Bank of Indiana;

The fund to be derived from the sale of county seminaries, and the moneys and property heretofore held for such seminaries; from the fines assessed for breaches of the penal laws of the State; and from all forfeitures which may accrue;

All lands and other estate which shall escheat to the State for want of heirs or kindred entitled to the inheritance;

All lands that have been or may hereafter be granted to the State, where no special purpose is expressed in the grant, and the proceeds of the sales thereof; including the proceeds of the sales of the Swamp Lands granted to the State of Indiana by the act of Congress, of the 28th of September, 1850, after deducting the expense of selecting and draining the same;

Taxes on the property of corporations that may be assessed by the General Assembly for Common School purposes.

Sec. 3. The principal of the Common School Fund shall remain a perpetual fund, which may be increased, but shall never be diminished; and the income thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of Common Schools, and to no other purpose whatever.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall invest, in some safe and profitable manner, all such portions of the Common School Fund as have not heretofore been entrusted to the several counties; and shall make provisions, by law, for the distribution, among the several counties, of the interest thereof.

Sec. 5. If any county shall fail to demand its proportion of such interest for Common School purposes, the same shall be reinvested for the benefit of such county.

Sec. 6. The several counties shall be held liable for the preservation of so much of the said fund as may be entrusted to them, and for the payment of the annual interest thereon.

Sec. 7. All trust funds held by the State shall remain inviolate, and be faithfully and exclusively applied to the purposes for which the trust was created.

Sec. 8. The General Assembly shall provide for the election, by the voters of the State, of a State Superintendent of

Public Instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties and compensation shall be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IX.

STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Section 1. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide by law for the support of Institutions for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, and of the Blind; and, also, for the treatment of the Insane.

Sec. 2. The General Assembly shall provide Houses of Refuge for the correction and reformation of juvenile offenders.

Sec. 3. The County Boards shall have power to provide farms as an asylum for those persons who, by reason of age, infirmity or other misfortune, have claims upon the sympathies and aid of society.

ARTICLE X.

FINANCE.

Section 1. The General Assembly shall provide, by law, for a uniform and equal rate of assessment and taxation; and shall prescribe such regulations as shall secure a just valuation for taxation of all property, both real and personal, excepting such only for municipal, educational, literary, scientific, religious or charitable purpose, as may be especially exempted by law.

Sec. 2. All the revenues derived from the sale of any of the public works belonging to the State, and from the net annual income thereof, and any surplus that may; at any time, remain in the Treasury derived from taxation for gen-

eral State purposes, after the payment of the ordinary expenses of the government, and of the interest on bonds of the State, other than bank bonds, shall be annually applied, under the direction of the General Assembly, to the payment of the principal of the public debt.

Sec. 3. No money shall be drawn from the Treasury but in pursuance of appropriations made by law.

Sec. 4. An accurate statement of the receipts and expenditures of the public money shall be published with the laws of each regular session of the General Assembly.

Sec. 5. No law shall authorize any debt to be contracted on behalf of the State, except in the following cases: To meet casual deficits in the revenue; to pay the interest on the State debt; to repel invasion, suppress insurrection, or, if hostilities be threatened, provide for public defense.

Sec. 6. No county shall subscribe for stock in any incorporated company, unless the same be paid for at the time of such subscription; nor shall any county loan its credit to any incorporated company, nor borrow money for the purpose of taking stock in any such company; nor shall the General Assembly ever, on behalf of the State, assume the debts of any county, city, town or township, nor of any corporation whatever.

Sec. 7. No law or resolution shall ever be passed by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana that shall recognize any liability of this State to pay or redeem any certificate of stock issued in pursuance of an act entitled "An act to provide for the funded debt of the State of Indiana, and for the completion of the Wabash and Erie Canal to Evansville," passed January 19, 1846, and an act supplemental to said act passed January 29, 1847, which, by the provisions of the said acts, or either of them, shall be payable exclusively

from the proceeds of the canal lands, and the tolls and revenues of the canal in said acts mentioned; and no such certificate of stock shall ever be paid by this State. (Added March 7, 1873.)

ARTICLE XI.

CORPORATIONS.

Section 1. The General Assembly shall not have power to establish, or incorporate any bank or banking company, or moneyed institution, for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to order or bearer, except under the conditions prescribed in this Constitution.

Sec. 2. No bank shall be established otherwise than under a general banking law, except as provided in the fourth section of this article.

Sec. 3. If the General Assembly shall enact a general banking law, such law shall provide for the registry and countersigning, by an officer of State, of all paper credit designed to be circulated as money; and ample collateral security, readily convertible into specie, for the redemption of the same in gold or silver, shall be required; which collateral security shall be under the control of the proper officer or officers of the State.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly may also charter a bank with branches, without collateral security, as required in the preceding section.

Sec. 5. If the General Assembly shall establish a bank with branches, the branches shall be mutually responsible for each other's liabilities, upon all paper credit issued as money.

Sec. 6. The stockholders in every bank, or banking company, shall be individually responsible to an amount over

and above their stock, equal to their respective shares of stock, for all debts or liabilities of said bank or banking company.

Sec. 7. All bills or notes issued as money, shall be, at all times, redeemable in gold or silver; and no law shall be passed sanctioning, directly or indirectly, the suspension, by any bank or banking company, of specie payments.

Sec. 8. Holders of bank notes shall be entitled, in case of insolvency, to preference of payment over all other creditors.

Sec. 9. No bank shall receive, directly or indirectly, a greater rate of interest than shall be allowed by law to individuals loaning money.

Sec. 10. Every bank, or banking company, shall be required to cease all banking operations within twenty years from the time of its organization, and promptly thereafter to close its business.

Sec. 11. The General Assembly is not prohibited from investing the trust funds in a bank with branches; but in case of such investment, the safety of the same shall be guaranteed by unquestionable security.

Sec. 12. The State shall not be a stockholder in any bank after the expiration of the present bank charter; nor shall the credit of the State ever be given, or loaned, in aid of any person, association or corporation, nor shall the State hereafter become a stockholder in any corporation or association.

Sec. 13. Corporations, other than banking, shall not be created by special act, but may be formed under general laws.

Sec. 14. Dues from corporations, other than banking, shall be secured by such individual liability of the corporations, or other means, as may be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XII.**MILITIA.**

Section 1. The militia shall consist of all able-bodied white male persons between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, except such as may be exempted by the laws of the United States, or of this State; and shall be organized, officered, armed, equipped and trained in such manner as may be provided by law.

Sec. 2. The Governor shall appoint the Adjutant, Quartermaster and Commissary Generals.

Sec. 3. All militia officers shall be commissioned by the Governor, and shall hold their offices not longer than six years.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall determine the method of dividing the militia into divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions and companies, and fix the rank of all staff officers.

Sec. 5. The militia may be divided into classes of sedentary and active militia in such manner as shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 6. No person conscientiously opposed to bearing arms shall be compelled to do militia duty; but such person shall pay an equivalent for exemption; the amount to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XIII.**POLITICAL AND MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS.**

Section 1. No political or municipal corporation in this State shall ever become indebted, in any manner or for any purpose, to any amount, in the aggregate exceeding two per

centum on the value of taxable property within such corporation, to be ascertained by the last assessment for State and county taxes, previous to the incurring of such indebtedness, and all bonds or obligations, in excess of such amount, given by such corporations, shall be void: Provided, That in time of war, foreign invasion, or other great public calamity, on petition of a majority of the property owners, in number and value, within the limits of such corporation, the public authorities, in their discretion, may incur obligations necessary for the public protection and defense, to such an amount as may be requested in such petition. (The original Article 13 was stricken out and the above adopted March 24, 1881.)

ARTICLE XIV.

BOUNDARIES.

Section 1. In order that the boundaries of the State may be known and established, it is hereby ordained and declared, that the State of Indiana is bounded on the east by the meridian line which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio; on the south by the Ohio River, from the mouth of the Great Miami River to the mouth of the Wabash River; on the west, by a line drawn along the middle of the Wabash River, from its mouth to a point where a due north line, drawn from the town of Vincennes, would last touch the northwestern shore of said Wabash River; and thence by a due north line, until the same shall intersect an east and west line, drawn through a point ten miles north of the southern extreme of Lake Michigan; on the north, by said east and west line, until the same shall intersect the first-mentioned meridian line, which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio.

Sec. 2. The State of Indiana shall possess jurisdiction, and sovereignty co-extensive with the boundaries declared in the preceding section; and shall have concurrent jurisdiction, in civil and criminal cases, with the State of Kentucky on the Ohio River, and with the State of Illinois on the Wabash River, so far as said rivers form the common boundary between this State and said States respectively.

ARTICLE XV.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Section 1. All officers whose appointment is not otherwise provided for in this Constitution, shall be chosen in such manner as now is, or hereafter may be, prescribed by law.

Sec. 2. When the duration of any office is not provided for by this Constitution, it may be declared by law; and if not so declared, such office shall be held during the pleasure of the authority making the appointment. But the General Assembly shall not create any office, the tenure of which shall be longer than four years.

Sec. 3. Whenever it is provided in this Constitution, or in any law which may be hereafter passed, that any officer, other than a member of the General Assembly, shall hold his office for any given term, the same shall be construed to mean that such officer shall hold his office for such term, and until his successor shall have been elected and qualified.

Sec. 4. Every person elected or appointed to any office under this Constitution shall, before entering on the duties thereof, take an oath or affirmation to support the Constitution of this State and of the United States, and also an oath of office.

Sec. 5. There shall be a seal of the State, kept by the Governor for official purposes, which shall be called the Seal of the State of Indiana.

Sec. 6. All commissions shall issue in the name of the State, shall be signed by the Governor, sealed by the State Seal, and attested by the Secretary of State.

Sec. 7. No county shall be reduced to an area less than four hundred square miles; nor shall any county under that area be further reduced.

Sec. 8. No lottery shall be authorized, nor shall the sale of lottery tickets be allowed.

Sec. 9. The following grounds owned by the State in Indianapolis, namely: the State House Square, the Governor's Circle, and so much of out-lot numbered one hundred and forty-seven as lies north of the arm of the Central Canal, shall not be sold or leased.

Sec. 10. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide for the permanent enclosure and preservation of the Tippecanoe Battle Ground.

ARTICLE XVI.

AMENDMENTS

Section 1. Any amendment or amendments to this Constitution may be proposed in either branch of the General Assembly; and if the same shall be agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each of the two Houses, such proposed amendment or amendments shall, with the yeas and nays thereon, be entered on their journals and referred to the General Assembly to be chosen at the next general election; and, if in the General Assembly so next chosen, such proposed amendment or amendments shall be agreed to by a

majority of all the members elected to each house, then it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to submit such amendment or amendments to the electors of the State, and if a majority of said electors shall ratify the same, such amendment or amendments shall become a part of this Constitution.

Sec. 2. If two or more amendments shall be submitted at the same time, they shall be submitted in such manner that the electors shall vote for or against each of such amendments separately; and while such an amendment or amendments which shall have been agreed upon by one General Assembly shall be awaiting the action of the succeeding General Assembly, or of the electors, no additional amendment or amendments shall be proposed.

SCHEDULE.

This Constitution, if adopted, shall take effect on the first day of November, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one, and shall supercede the Constitution adopted in the year one thousand eight hundred and sixteen. That no inconvenience may arise from the change in the government, it is hereby ordained as follows:

First. All laws now in force, and not inconsistent with this Constitution, shall remain in force until they shall expire or be repealed.

Second. All indictments, prosecutions, suits, pleas, complaints and other proceedings pending in any of the courts, shall be prosecuted to final judgment and execution; and all appeals, writs of error, certiorari and injunctions shall be carried on in the several courts, in the same manner as is now provided by law.

Third. All fines, penalties and forfeitures due or accruing to the State, or to any county therein, shall inure to the State, or to such county in the manner prescribed by law. All bonds executed to the State, or to any officer, in his official capacity, shall remain in force, and inure to the use of those concerned.

Fourth. All acts of incorporation for municipal purposes shall continue in force under this Constitution until such time as the General Assembly shall, in its discretion, modify or repeal the same.

Fifth. The Governor, at the expiration of the present official term, shall continue to act until his successor shall have been sworn into office.

Sixth. There shall be a session of the General Assembly, commencing on the first Monday of December, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one.

Seventh. Senators now in office and holding over, under the existing Constitution, and such as may be elected at the next general election, and the Representatives then elected, shall continue in office until the first general election under this Constitution.

Eighth. The first general election under this Constitution shall be held in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two.

Ninth. The first election for Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Judges of the Supreme Court and Circuit Courts, Clerk of the Supreme Court, Prosecuting Attorney, Secretary, Auditor and Treasurer of State, and State Superintendent of Public Instruction, under this Constitution, shall be held at the general election in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two; and such of said officers as may be in office when this Constitution shall go into effect, shall

continue in their respective offices until their successors shall have been elected and qualified.

Tenth. Every person elected by popular vote, and now in any office which is continued by this Constitution, and every person who shall be so elected to any such office before the taking effect of this Constitution (except as in this Constitution otherwise provided), shall continue in office until the term for which such person has been, or may be, elected, shall expire: Provided, That no such person shall continue in office after the taking effect of this Constitution, for a longer period than the term of such office in this Constitution prescribed.

Eleventh. On the taking effect of this Constitution, all officers thereby continued in office shall, before proceeding in the further discharge of their duties, take an oath or affirmation to support this Constitution.

Twelfth. All vacancies that may occur in existing offices prior to the first general election under this Constitution, shall be filled in the manner now prescribed by law.

Thirteenth. At the time of submitting this Constitution to the electors for their approval or disapproval, the article numbered thirteen, in relation to negroes and mulattoes, shall be submitted as a distinct proposition, in the following form: "Exclusion and Colonization of Negroes and Mulattoes," "Aye," or "No." And if a majority of the votes cast shall be in favor of said article, then the same shall form a part of this Constitution, otherwise it shall be void and form no part thereof.

Fourteenth. No article or section of this Constitution shall be submitted as a distinct proposition to a vote of the electors otherwise than as herein provided.

Fifteenth. Whenever a portion of the citizens of the

counties of Perry and Spencer shall deem it expedient to form, of the contiguous territory of said counties, a new county, it shall be the duty of those interested in the organization of such new county, to lay off the same by proper metes and bounds of equal portions as nearly as practicable, not to exceed one-third of the territory of each of said counties. The proposal to create such new county shall be submitted to the voters of said counties, at a general election, in such manner as shall be prescribed by law. And if a majority of all the votes given at said election shall be in favor of the organization of said new county, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to organize the same out of the territory thus designated.

Sixteenth. The General Assembly may alter or amend the charter of Clarksville, and make such regulations as may be necessary for carrying into effect the objects contemplated in granting the same, and the funds belonging to said town shall be applied according to the intention of the grantor.

Done in convention at Indianapolis, the tenth day of February, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one; and of the independence of the United States, the seventy-fifth.

GEORGE WHITFIELD CARR,

President, and Delegate from the County of Lawrence.

Attest: WILLIAM H. ENGLISH,

Principal Secretary.

ADDENDA.

The original sections stricken out or amended read as follows:

ARTICLE II.**SUFFRAGE AND ELECTION.**

Section 2. In all elections not otherwise provided for by this Constitution, every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the State during the six months immediately preceding such election; and every white male, of foreign birth, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the United States one year, and shall have resided in this State during the six months immediately preceding such election, and shall have declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, conformably to the laws of the United States on the subject of naturalization, shall be entitled to vote in the township or precinct where he may reside.

Sec. 5. No negro or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage.

Sec. 14. All general elections shall be held on the second Tuesday in October.

ARTICLE IV.**LEGISLATIVE.**

Section 4. The General Assembly shall, at its second session after the adoption of this Constitution, and every six years thereafter, cause an enumeration to be made of all the white male inhabitants over the age of twenty-one years.

Sec. 5. The number of Senators and Representatives shall, at the session next following each period of making such enumeration, be fixed by law, and apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of white male in-

habitants, above twenty-one years of age, in each: Provided, That the first and second elections of members of the General Assembly, under this Constitution, shall be according to the apportionment last made by the General Assembly, before the adoption of this Constitution.

Sec. 22. In relation to fees or salaries:

ARTICLE VII.

JUDICIAL.

Section 1. The judicial power of the State shall be vested in a Supreme Court, in Circuit Courts, and in such inferior courts as the General Assembly may establish.

ARTICLE XIII.

NEGROES AND MULATTOES.

Section 1. No negro or mulatto shall come into, or settle in the State, after the adoption of this Constitution.

Sec. 2. All contracts made with any negro or mulatto coming into the State, contrary to the provisions of the foregoing section, shall be void; and any person who shall employ such negro or mulatto, or otherwise encourage him to remain in the State, shall be fined in any sum not less than ten dollars, nor more than five hundred dollars.

Sec. 3. All fines which may be collected for a violation of the provisions of this article, or of any law which may hereafter be passed for the purpose of carrying the same into execution, shall be set apart and appropriated for the colonization of such negroes and mulattoes, and their descendants, as may be in the State at the adoption of this Constitution, and may be willing to emigrate.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall pass laws to carry out the provisions of this article.

THE BATTLESHIP INDIANA.

During the administration of President Benjamin Harrison the Government was engaged in building one or more battleships. A number of armored cruisers, of great speed, had been built, but the United States had no battleships able to contend with those of the European powers. Congress determined to construct a ship that would surpass any of those of Europe in speed, and in the weight of its armament. The first of the new ships to be thus constructed was given the name of Indiana, by Secretary Tracy, of the Navy Department. It was not only to be the heaviest armed vessel of the navy, but the heaviest armored, and the speediest of its class. It was to be a seagoing vessel, capable of maintaining a very high rate of speed, and of sufficient capacity to carry the fuel necessary for such a speed. In short, it was to be the model war vessel of the world, and the largest in all but size of its hull.

The new vessel was launched at noon on February 28, 1893, at the Philadelphia shipyards, and was christened, by Miss Jessie Miller, daughter of Hon. W. H. H. Miller, of Indianapolis, who at the time was Attorney General in the Cabinet of President Harrison. A great concourse of people witnessed the event, and the completion of the vessel was watched with interest, not only in this country, but by European ship builders. Its length on the load

line is 368 feet, extreme breadth sixty-nine feet three inches; draft, twenty-four feet; displacement, 10,288 tons. On its trial trip it made a speed of something over sixteen knots an hour, and its sustained sea speed was fifteen knots, the engines developing 9,000 horse-power. The hull is made of steel, of which 4,400 tons were used. The weight of the armor is 2,700 tons, some of it being eighteen inches thick. The engines and machinery weigh 875 tons. There are sixty-six separate engines; two of them being so immense that two smaller engines are used to start them.

The ship is lighted by electricity, furnished by three very powerful dynamos, and the large guns are handled by machinery. The armament consists of four thirteen-inch guns; eight eight-inch guns; four six-inch; twenty six-pounder, rapid-fire guns; four one-pounder, rapid-fire guns, and four Gatling guns. If all these guns should be discharged at the same time the weight of metal hurled at the foe would be 6,800 pounds, or about 800 pounds more than that of any other war vessel in existence. The power for destruction of this armament may be conceived when it is stated that a projectile from one of the thirteen-inch guns will penetrate twenty-five inches of wrought iron at a distance of one mile. Those guns will hurl their projectiles with accuracy to a distance of twelve miles, while the eight-inch guns are effective at eight, and the six-inch at six miles, and the rapid-fire guns have a range of two and a half miles. The thirteen-inch guns are in two turrets, one fore and one aft, two in each turret. The turrets are protected by nineteen inches of steel armor. One story above the thirteen-inch guns, on a superstructure in sets of twos, are the eight eight-inch guns. Amidships, on the main deck, are the four six-inch guns.

The rapid-fire guns use projectiles of chilled steel, and can be fired at the rate of fifteen shots a minute. These projectiles weigh from one to four pounds, and at close range will penetrate very heavy armor. Some of the shells to be used in case of a bombardment, weigh 1,100 pounds, and are filled with noxious gases, which, on the bursting of the shell, will poison every one within reach.

This model vessel of war is provided with every comfort for the officers and men, and their safety is looked after with the same particularity of detail. Provision is made for furnishing every part of the vessel with fresh air during an engagement. Every appliance known to science or mechanical skill has been used to make the Indiana able to withstand any attack that could be possibly made upon her. With her great speed she could run away from any other battleship, and the fleet cruisers would have no effect upon her armor.

In June, 1894, the Indianapolis News started the work of securing, by subscription, the means to present the Indiana with a service of solid silver. It was not long before it even had the school children interested in the project, and the sum of \$8,890 was finally raised. A full dinner service and tea set was ordered made, after designs especially prepared. The weight of the service is nearly two hundred pounds, and consists of thirty-eight pieces. The cost was \$7,785.

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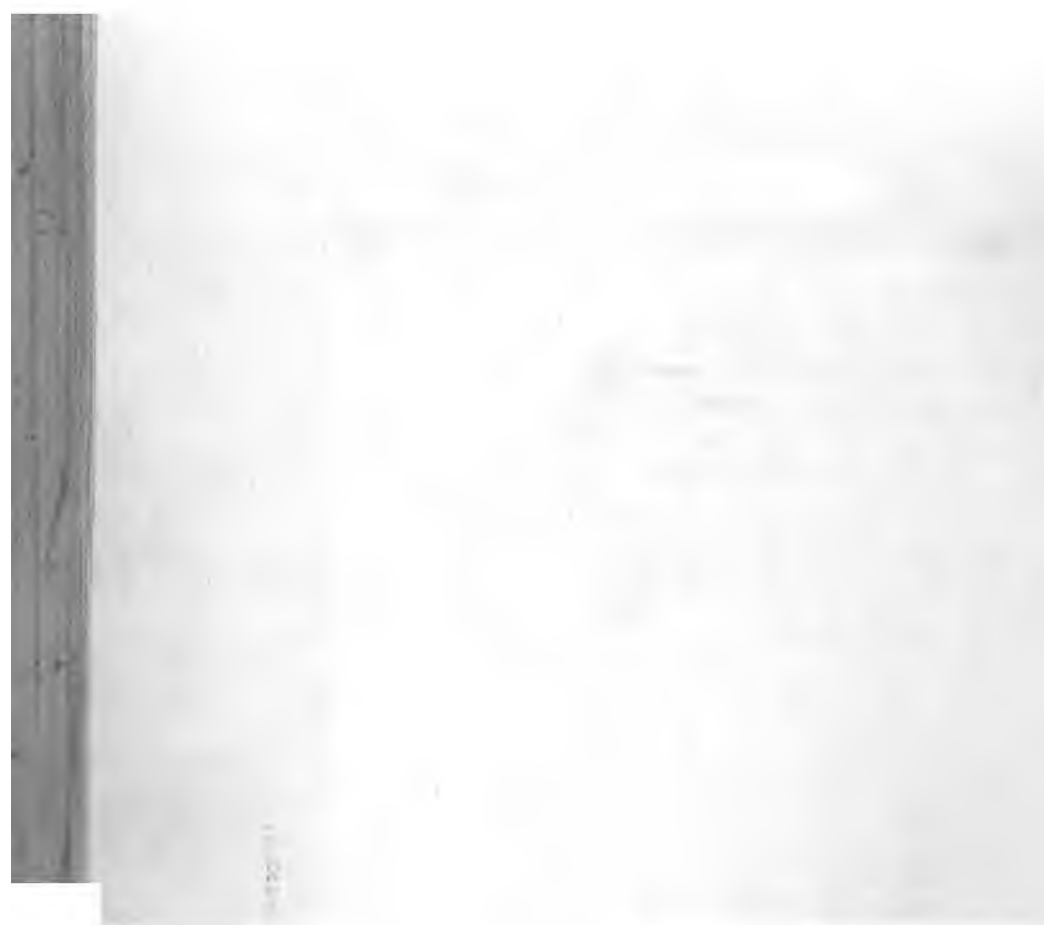
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